The impact of positive organisational factors on the career success of black employees in the South African work environment: An exploratory study

By

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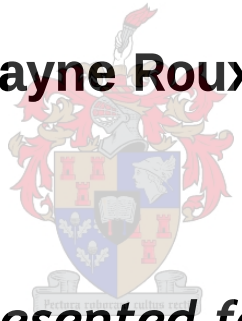

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DECLARATION

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December 2014

DEDICATION

Dearest Mom,

I dedicate this dissertation to you,
Your hope, optimism and resilience on your extremely challenging journey has been an enormous inspiration to me,
Thank you sincerely for your deep caring and unconditional love,
I love you!

ABSTRACT

This study is rooted in career psychology with implications for career management. In addition, the study draws from various fields including the positive organisational behaviour paradigm. The underlying assumption of this study is that certain organisational and individual factors influence the experience of subjective career success amongst black employees in the South African work environment. In order to evaluate this assumption an attempt was made to gain an understanding of the antecedents of subjective career success. An overview of the literature led the researcher to the conclusion that transformational leadership, job resources, supportive organisational climate, psychological empowerment, and psychological capital (PsyCap), could be regarded as antecedents of subjective career success. Based on the literature, a theoretical model was developed that portrays a sequential process within which the identified variables play roles that vary in salience, depending on the stage in the sequential process.

A mixed-methods research design was employed to guide the investigation. More specifically, the study consisted of a qualitative strand, followed by two quantitative strands. In the qualitative strand (Phase 1), a semi-structured interview was used to obtain information about the factors influencing career success from 30 black employees in white-collar jobs from three different South African organisations. The purpose of the qualitative strand was two-fold, firstly to seek confirmation that the instruments utilised covered the most salient issues. Secondly, to obtain guidance on how to supplement constructs that were not adequately covered, before continuing with the subsequent quantitative strands. The outcome of Phase 1 provided evidence of sufficient coverage of the variables as based on the literature review. However, it was decided to add three questions to the job resources measuring instrument, as well as two items to the supportive organisational climate instrument.

During both the quantitative strands, survey research was used. To facilitate the collection of data during the survey research, an electronic web-based questionnaire

was compiled. Standardised questionnaires were utilised to measure each of the ten constructs.

The purpose of Phase 2 was to pilot test the composite questionnaire. A total of 220 usable questionnaires were analysed during Phase 2 with regard to the psychometric properties associated with each of the constructs. Evidence of the psychometric properties was obtained by means of internal consistency, confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis. All the instruments used in Phase 2 had acceptable reliabilities and goodness-of-fit, with the exception of the psychological capital instrument (PCQ). More specifically, less than satisfactory reliability coefficients were observed for resilience (α= .60) and optimism (α= .48). On the basis of this, no changes were made to the content of the instruments for use in Phase 3. However assumptions about the factorial structure of the job resources scale had to be revisited. The outcome of Phase 2 was a set of reliable and valid measuring instruments that could be used with confidence.

The purpose of Phase 3 was to evaluate thirteen propositions guiding the current study. A total of 418 usable questionnaires were analysed during Phase 3. During Phase 3, further confirmation was found that all the instruments used had acceptable reliabilities, as well as goodness-of-fit. In addition, correlation analysis, step-wise multiple regression and structural equation modelling (variance and covariance-based) were employed.

All the independent variables were significantly related to the dependent variable, subjective career success, except for objective career success (past). Job resources, psychological capital and supportive organisational climate, however, were the only significant predictors of career success. In order to evaluate the appropriateness of the proposed sequential model, both variance and covariance-based structural equation modelling were used.

Model exploration was facilitated by the use of variance-based structural equation modelling. Both non-significant paths, as well as significant, but weak paths, were

removed during the exploration process. The covariance-based approach allowed the utilisation of modification indices to arrive at an optimal model. A model consisting of only the significant paths were subjected to covariance-based structural equation modelling.

The modification indices suggested adding three direct paths between subjective career success and transformational leadership, job resources, as well as supportive organisational climate. However, in the optimal model, the direct path between transformational leadership and subjective career success was excluded due to not being statistically significant. In the optimal model all the proposed paths were significant. Acceptable goodness-of-fit was obtained for this optimal model. The results of Phase 3 provided evidence supporting the majority of the thirteen propositions that guided the current study.

With the unique combination of variables, this study can be seen as making a contribution to the existing theory and literature by explicating the interrelationships between transformational leadership, job resources, supportive organisational climate, psychological empowerment, psychological capital (PsyCap), and subjective career success. The researcher made recommendations for future research, as well as for scientific and practical interventions regarding the development of subjective career success.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie studie is gegrond in loopbaansielkunde met implikasies vir loopbaanbestuur. Hierbenewens het die studie op verskeie velde gesteun, insluitend, en veral, die positiewe organisatoriese gedragsparadigma. Die onderliggende aanname in die studie was dat die ervaring van subjektiewe loopbaansukses onder swart werknemers in die Suid-Afrikaanse werkomgewing deur sekere organisatoriese en individuele faktore beïnvloed word. Ten einde hierdie aanname te evalueer, is gepoog om ’n begrip te vorm van die aanleidende oorsake van subjektiewe loopbaansukses. ’n Literatuuroorsig het die navorser tot die slotsom gebring dat transformasionele leierskap, werkhulpbronne, ondersteunende organisatoriese klimaat, sielkundige bemagtiging en sielkundige kapitaal (PsyCap) as oorsaaklike faktore van subjektiewe loopbaansukses beskou kan word. ’n Teoretiese model wat op die literatuur gebaseer was, is ontwikkel om ’n opeenvolgende proses waarin die geïdentifiseerde veranderlikes wissellende rolle ten opsigte van prominensie speel, weer te gee.

’n Gemengde-metodes-ontwerp is in die navorsing gebruik om die ondersoek te rig. Meer besonderlik het die studie ’n kwalitatiewe fase behels, wat deur twee kwantitatiewe fases gevolg is. In die kwalitatiewe fase (Fase 1) is semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude met 30 swart gesalarieerde werknemers in drie verskillende Suid-Afrikaanse organisasies gevoer om inligting oor die faktore wat loopbaansukses beïnvloed, in te win. Die doel van die kwalitatiewe fase was tweeledig: eerstens om bevestiging te verkry dat die instrumente wat gebruik is, die mees belangike kwessies gedek het. Tweedens was die doel om uit te vind hoe om die konstrukte wat nie behoorlik gedek is nie, aan te vul voordat daar met die daaropvolgende kwantitatiewe fases voortgegaan word. Die uitkoms van Fase 1 het getuienis gelewer dat daar, soos op die literatuuroorsig gebaseer, voldoende dekking van die veranderlikes was. Daar is egter besluit om drie vrae by die meetinstrument vir die meet van werkhulpbronne by te voeg, sowel as om twee items by die meetinstrument vir die meet van ondersteunende organisatoriese klimaat by te voeg.

Opname-navorsing is gedurende beide kwantitatiewe fases gebruik. ’n Elektroniese web-gebaseerde vraelys is opgestel om die opname-navorsing te vergemaklik. Gestandaardiseerde vraelyste is gebruik om elk van die tien konstrukte te meet.

Die doel van Fase 2 was om ’n voortoetsing met die saamgestelde vraelys uit te voer. Twee honderd en twintig bruikbare vraelyste is gedurende Fase 2 ontleed met betrekking tot die psigometiese eienskappe wat met elk van die konstrukte geassosieer was. Getuienis omtrent die psigometriese eienskappe van die meetinstrumente is deur middel van interne konsekwentheid, en bevestigende en ondersoekende faktorontleding verkry. Al die instrumente wat in Fase 2 gebruik is, het aanvaarbare betroubaarheid en goeie passing getoon, met die uitsondering van die sielkundige kapitaal (PsyCap) instrument, meer spesifiek, minder aanvaarbare vlakke van betroubaarheid is gevind in die geval van veerkragtigheid (α= .60) en optimisme (α= .48). Daar is egter geen veranderinge vir gebruik in Fase 3 aan die inhoud van die instrumente aangebring nie. Aannames ten opsigte van die faktoriale struktuur van die werkhulpbronneskaal moes egter hersien word. Die uitkoms van Fase 2 was ’n betroubare en geldige stel meetinstrumente wat met vertroue gebruik kon word.

Die doel van Fase 3 was om die dertien hipoteses wat die huidige studie gerig het, te evalueer. Hiervoor is 418 bruikbare vraelyste tydens Fase 3 ontleed. Verdere bevestiging dat al die instrumente aanvaarbare betroubaarheid, asook goeie passing getoon het, is tydens Fase 3 verkry. Daarbenewens is korrelasie-ontleding, stapsgewyse meervoudige regressie en strukturele vergelykingsmodellering (variansie- en kovariansie-gebaseerd) gebruik.

Behalwe vir objektiewe loopbaansukses (vorige), was al die onafhanklike veranderlikes beduidend verwant aan die afhanklike veranderlike, naamlik subjektiewe loopbaansukses. Werkhulpbronne, sielkundige kapitaal en ondersteunende organisatoriese klimaat was egter die enigste beduidende voorspellers van loopbaansukses. Beide variansie- en kovariansie-gebaseerde strukturele

vergelykingsmodellering is gebruik om die toepaslikheid van die voorgestelde konseptuele model te evalueer.

Verkenning van die model is met gebruik van variansie-gebaseerde strukturele vergelykingsmodellering bewerkstellig. Beide nie-beduidende bane, sowel as beduidende, maar swak bane, is tydens die verkenningsproses verwyder. Met die benutting van modifikasie-indekse het die kovariansie-gebaseerde benadering dit moontlik gemaak om ’n optimale model daar te stel. Die model, wat slegs uit die beduidende bane bestaan het, is aan kovariansie-gebaseerde strukturele vergelykingsmodellering onderwerp.

Die modifikasie-indekse het die toevoeging van drie direkte bane tussen subjektiewe loopbaansukses en transformasionele leierskap, werkhulpbronne, en ondersteunende organisatoriese klimaat voorgestel. In die optimale model is die direkte baan tussen transformasionele leierskap en subjektiewe loopbaansukses egter uitgeskakel omdat dit nie statisties beduidend was nie. Al die voorgestelde bane was in die optimale model beduidend en goeie passing is vir hierdie optimale model verkry. Die resultate van Fase 3 het bewys gelewer vir die aanvaarding van die meerderheid van die dertien hipoteses wat die huidige studie gerig het.

Vanweë die ontwikkeling van die onderlinge verband tussen transformasionele leierskap, werkhulpbronne, ondersteunende organisatoriese klimaat, sielkundige bemagtiging, sielkundige kapitaal (PsyCap), en subjektiewe loopbaansukses, kan hierdie studie, met hierdie unieke samestelling van veranderlikes, as bydraend tot die bestaande teorie en literatuur beskou word. Die navorser doen aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing, sowel as vir wetenskaplike en praktiese intervensies ten opsigte van die ontwikkeling van subjektiewe loopbaansukses.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
AIC	Akaike Information Criterion
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BIC	Bayesian Information Criterion
BUSA	Business Unity South Africa
CBSEM	Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modelling
CEE	Commission for Employment Equity
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CES	Career Enhancing Strategy
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
COR	Conservation of Resources
CSAQ	Computerised Self-Administered Questionnaire
df	Degrees of Freedom
EE	Employment Equity
EEA	Employment Equity Act
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
FRLD	Full Range Leadership Development
GFI	Goodness-of-Fit Index
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness Research Programme
GOF	Goodness-of-Fit
HR	Human Resources
HRD	Human Resource Development
JCT	Job Characteristics Theory
JDRS	Job Demands-Resources Scale
JSE	Johannesburg Stock Exchange
LISREL	Linear Structural Relationships
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange

MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
NNFI	Non-Normed Fit Index
NFI	Normed Fit Index
OB	Organisational Behaviour
PAL	Positive Approach to Leadership
PCI	Psychological Capital Intervention
PSYCAP	Psychological Capital
PCQ-24	Psychological Capital Questionnaire-24
PLS	Partial Least Squares
POB	Positive Organisational Behaviour
POS	Perceived Organisational Support
SCM	Supervisory Career Mentoring
SRMR	Standardised Root Mean Square Residual
RMR	Root Mean Square Residual
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
S-B X^2	Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
VBSEM	Variance-Based Structural Equation Modelling
WLS	Weighted Least Squares

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CHAPTER 1: THE PROBLEM AND ITS CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction

This study is rooted in career psychology with implications for career management. In addition, the study draws from various fields, including the positive organisational behaviour paradigm. The underlying assumption of this study is that certain organisational and individual factors influence the experience of subjective career success amongst black employees in the South African work environment. The present research study will develop and evaluate an exploratory theoretical model containing the most salient latent variables that impact on the subjective career success of employees from the black designated group (Africans, coloureds, and Indians).

This chapter provides a general introduction to the context of the study. Emphasis is placed on the South African historical and legislative background that influences the attempts by organisations to develop and retain black employees in order to increase their chances of career success. The research initiating question, specific research questions, aim of the study, as well as the possible contributions of the study are presented. Finally, an outline of the remainder of the dissertation is provided.

To contextualise the current study, it is important to first understand the historical background in South Africa with regard to the career development of black employees. This is followed by a brief overview of relevant labour legislation which attempts to remedy the imbalances of the past. Progress towards implementing remedial measures, as suggested by legislation, is also discussed. Within this context, organisations are trying to develop and retain their talent, more specifically black employees. The changing nature of careers also seems to play a role in the development and retention of talent. One way of retaining talent is to focus on career management and development. The responsibilities of the role players (employer and employee) with regard to employee development as an enabler of career success will be discussed.

1.1.1 Historical background.

In order to exploit the potential in the global market, South African organisations have been forced to change their "inward focused" policies to more "outward looking" in the space of a few short years (Denton & Vloeberghs, 2003). According to these authors, South African organisations have faced numerous difficulties due to many years of isolation, including the onslaught of vigorous competition from global competitors. Larova and Taylor (2009) state that the current economic environment has forced companies to become more flexible in order to remain competitive, which has implications for the career development of individual employees.

Kokt (2003) contends that the historical, political, economic and social factors in which South African leaders operate are complex and challenging. According to Stead and Watson (2006, p. 2), "in South Africa, the history of career psychology has been contentious…the majority of the population suffered under restrictions, which included large-scale social engineering…politics, economics and prevailing social conditions have perniciously affected the nature, form, and direction of career psychology in South Africa". Osipow and Littlejohn (1995) maintain that the principal assumptions of career development theory have been desecrated in the lives of many South Africans.

Moreover, McFarlin, Coster and Mogale-Pretorius (1999) advocate that in order to compete effectively in global markets, it is imperative for South Africa to reduce unemployment and develop a productive workforce representative of all South African citizens. Blehar (2006) points out that the development and retention of both skilled and unskilled people contribute to country growth and hold benefits for all occupations. Contagiannis (2007, p. 44) stresses that "skills shortages in the South African economy, and the reasons behind them are well-known, and that they are one of the major constraints for sustainable economic growth". Mitchell, Holton and Lee (2001) highlight that in addition to the major skills-shortage in South Africa, there is strong competition between companies to attract the best talent. Mitchell et al. (2001) note the continuous challenges that South African managers face to develop and retain talent.

According to Luthans, van Wyk and Walumbwa (2004), in addition to the talent retention challenges, leaders in the South African business environment need to develop the appropriate skills to manage business dynamics in the post-apartheid organisational culture. Thomas and Jain (2004) echo the view of the latter authors, and highlight that leaders also require new skills to manage a diverse workgroup brought about by the new demographics in the employee pool. Roodt (1997) holds the view that various factors, including education, disparity in income levels, and affirmative action, influence the complex nature of organisational culture in South Africa. Thomas and Doak (2000) maintain that South African business leaders are responsible to ensure the creation of inclusive organisational cultures which embrace diversity, and particularly encourage talented employees to participate in the promotion of intellectual capital. Denton and Vloeberghs (2003) claim that one of the main imperatives post the 1994 South African elections, is the transformation of all organisations to ensure representation of all South African citizens. In the following section, the introduction of South African legislation in pursuit of transformation objectives will be discussed.

1.1.2 South African legislation.

The demise of Apartheid in South Africa has been a slow process, with minimal improvement of the career development for black South Africans. Leonard and Grobler (2006) suggest that the introduction of the *Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998,* was to enforce transformation, given that organisations would not voluntarily empower enough black employees. The Employment Equity Act (Republic of South Africa, 1998) and the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act (Republic of South Africa, 2004) was introduced to legally implement affirmative action measures to address inequalities created by Apartheid. According to Nienaber (2007), the implementation of employment equity (EE) is one of the most urgent imperatives with which South African managers are challenged. This author posits that the complexity of implementing EE in different organisations with varying organisational climates, cultures, processes and practices should not be underestimated.

1.1.3 Progress towards implementing remedial measures.

The thirteenth Commission for Employment Equity (CEE) 2012-2013 Annual Report, registers further serious concerns, given that more than 12 years after the Employment Equity Act has been promulgated, recruitment statistics for all employers show that at the senior management level more white males were recruited (42,6%), than any other single group, in comparison with African males: (12,7%), coloured males: (4%), Indian males: (6,7%), African females: (7,1%), coloured females: (2,3%), Indian females: (3%), and white females (17,1%). Promotion statistics at this level reveal similar trends, with a higher percentage of white males (32,1%) promoted into senior management than any other group. Of all promotions during 2012, African males represented (6,8%), coloured males (5,6%), Indian males (7,8%), African females (9,1%), and Indian females (4,5%). The disproportionate representation of various groups has impacted negatively on training and development as well. In 2012, white males (35,4%) enjoyed double the amount of skills development opportunities in comparison with African males (16,8%). Employers still tend to provide more training opportunities to the high earning occupational levels, whilst white employees tend to dominate at these levels.

A 2010 survey conducted by Business Unity South Africa (BUSA) among the upper management echelons of 295 companies listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE) revealed that black people and women continue to be grossly under-represented in all directorships and top leadership positions. Some of the study's major findings showed that:

- Of 269 Chief Executive Officer (CEO) positions, Africans occupy 4 %, coloureds 3%, Indians 2%, and whites 92%.
- Females account for 3% and males 97% of 269 CEO positions.
- Some 533 executive and non-executive directors will retire from Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE)-listed companies in the next five years.

BUSA (2010, p. 1) claimed that, "the anticipated retirement of over 500 directors in the next five years provides a golden opportunity for expediting the pace of transformation in the upper echelons of Corporate South Africa."

Thomas and Robertshaw (1999) suggest that transformation in South African organisations is rarely viewed as an inclusive process in which all employees have the opportunity to be developed to their full potential. In addition, these authors note that South African organisations need to be created discrimination and culturally free, representative of the demographics of the country. In line with Thomas and Robertshaw (1999), Richard, McMillan-Capehart, Chadwick and Dwyer (2003), maintain that cultural diversity in South African work environments should become a norm and an economic imperative. Zulu and Parumasur (2009) point out that the Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998 and other labour legislation failed to specifically emphasise the importance of cultural diversity. Zulu and Parumasur (2009) suggest that in order for the transformation agenda to be successful, it must give cultural recognition to previously disadvantaged groups. The afore-mentioned authors all seem to be in agreement on the critical importance of embracing cultural diversity in the South African work environment. According to Luthans et al. (2004), if South African organisations learn to value cultural diversity, this will create a strength-based perspective and contribute to both local and global competitiveness.

Although some progress has been made in adhering to the legislative requirements, organisations should address imbalances by creating working environments aimed at correcting past historical injustices perpetuated against black people, and thereby ensure future economic development and career success opportunities for all South Africans.

1.1.4 Organisational attempts to remedy the imbalances of the past.

Research conducted by Selby and Sutherland (2006) and Booysen (2007) reported that the challenge for South African business organisations is to create working environments in which employees experience career satisfaction through fair employment practices, while simultaneously achieving business objectives. EE is defined as “the employment of individuals in a fair and non-biased manner” (Bendix, as cited in Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010, p. 2).

Booysen (2007) highlights the under-mentioned reasons for the high attrition rates in the implementation of EE practices and inconsistent and slow progress with the implementation of EE at management levels.

- Lack of commitment from top management
- Lack of communication regarding EE progress
- Cultural insensitivity when new recruits are employed
- Lack of cultural awareness - mainly white male dominated
- Exclusion of black people (formally or informally) from networks
- Black tokenism - not fully integrated into companies
- Ineffective talent management
- Black employees are not systematically trained and developed
- Lack of black role models and mentors

Booysen (2007) stresses that organisations need to effectively communicate and involve all employees in the employment equity and transformation agenda. The demand for organisations to comply with EE legislative requirements (Republic of South Africa, 2004; 1998), together with the critical shortage of black talent, requires special attention to the identification of potential and development of black employees.

Boudreau (1991) points out that the identification and development of potential requires organisations to invest in scarce resources in a culture which values diversity and places emphasis on coaching and mentoring. This author suggests that organisations can justify their investments provided they show significant positive utility. Cascio (1991) and Boudreau (1991) suggest that multiple factors affect the utility of human resource interventions, such as the timeframe impacting the effect of the intervention. These authors posit that it is imperative to retain newly appointed and developed black employees to ensure that resources invested in affirmative action interventions yield positive returns for South African organisations. In addition, these authors bluntly argue that if organisations cannot retain black talent for a reasonable period, there does not seem to be much point in identifying and developing them. McKay, Avery, Tonidandel, Morris, Hernandez and Hebl (2007) echo

the sentiment of the previous authors, and highlight the enormous human resources (HR) challenge of retaining an initially small pool of black talent in cultures which generally don't welcome diversity, and place value on scarce suitably qualified black talent.

The following five general prerequisite conditions may be useful for organisations to measure their success towards achieving their transformation objectives.

The first is the retention of talent in the South African work context. Literature reveals that there is a multiplicity of suggested methods of retaining talent, approaching retention on many different levels, and in many different ways, as Ettore (1997, p. 49) notes "… at its most effective, corporate retention is a sophisticated juggling act". Branch (1998) contends that the objective of retention should be to identify and retain committed employees for as long as it is profitable to both the organisation and the employee. Denton and Vloeberghs (2003) recommend that South African business leaders must consciously develop a culture of transformation which embraces diversity, competitive remuneration and leadership development, hence leveraging these contributors to retention.

Second, organisational commitment is a further success factor that organisations may use in their pursuit of their transformation objectives. Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67) defined organisational commitment as "a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organisation and (b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organisation". Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that commitment by employees is developed when an organisation conveys a supportive environment in which individual contribution is valued, resulting in a fulfilling work experience. This in turn creates an environment in which individuals may experience perceptions of empowerment.

A third condition is having high levels of work engagement - a positive, fulfilling, affective motivational state or work-related being that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002a). Vigour is indicative of mental resilience, and high energy levels whilst working.

Dedication refers to being involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance and enthusiasm. Absorption is characterised by being fully focussed and happily engrossed in one's work. Previous studies have shown that job resources such as social support from colleagues and supervisors, performance feedback, skill variety, autonomy, and learning opportunities are positively associated with work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007).

The fourth condition is job satisfaction. Studies of job satisfaction indicate that in many cases subjective or objective variables determine job satisfaction. Job satisfaction often seems to be referred to as an intrinsic motivational factor. Variables such as income, job autonomy, responsibility and supervisory status have been found to have positive associations with job satisfaction (Khan, 1972; Lawler, 1971; Martin & Hanson, 1986).

Fifth, Ballout (2007) maintains that objective and subjective career success (the main focus of the current study) has emerged as an important concern for both employees and employers. This is attributable to the link between career success and various individual and organisational variables. According to the afore-mentioned author, because there is wide acknowledgement that careers are rapidly changing, career success can no longer be determined by a set of well-defined variables. Both employers and employees need to share responsibility for the changing and challenging nature of career success (Ballout, 2007). Zhao and Zhou (2008) highlight that career success is one of the goals that employees pursue during their career path journey.

1.1.5 The business case for the current focus on the development of black employees.

According to van Dijk (2005) human resource development (HRD) is a critical imperative contributing to a country's growth potential. This is especially relevant in South Africa, which has large quantities of unskilled human resources and a critical shortage of skilled people. Development is "the process whereby individuals learn through experience to become more effective" (van Dijk, 2005, p. 164).

HRD is defined as "the integrated use of training and development, organisational development and career development to improve individual, group and organizational effectiveness" (Harris & DeSimone, 1994, p. 9). In a similar vein, Harrison (1993, p. 300) defines HRD as the planned learning and development of employees as individuals and groups to the benefit of the organisation and its employees". Lee and Bruvold (2003), claim that investing in employee development is critical in maintaining and developing employee competencies (i.e. skills, knowledge, and abilities). Theories of employee development broadly assume that employees who participate in development activities respond with positive attitudes towards the organisation (Noe, Wilk, Mullen, & Wanek, 1997).

It is pertinent to note that the global business landscape is continuously changing and organisations must be flexible and quick to respond in order to be successful. Buckingham (1997) succinctly defines companies by stating "…there are two types of companies- the quick and the dead ones". It is widely acknowledged that in order for South Africa to remain competitive in the global environment, it will have to develop a highly productive and competent workforce able to effectively compete in the global business world.

Given the historical situation in South Africa, there were significant limiting implications for the career development of black people (Schlemmer & Lee, 1991). Historically, black employees were purposefully prevented from development opportunities, including access and vertical progression to skilled and management roles by discriminatory institutionalised employment practices (Horwitz, Bowmaker-Falconer, & Searll, 1996). Moreover, the effect of these practices is exacerbated by a critical shortage of skills and a lack of appropriately qualified employees. This is viewed as one of the major constraints for sustainable economic growth in South Africa (Contagiannis, 2007). The situation is further compounded by additional pressures faced by South African business leaders to implement the requirements of the Employment Equity Act (EEA) (1998). The EEA defines the designated groups or recipients of EE opportunities as all black (African, coloured, and Indian) employees, women, and the physically challenged. These include legal and institutional measures in order to redress the historical legacy of workplace discrimination against these

groups of people. In addition to the afore-mentioned measures, organisations are also faced with internal normative pressures to implement employment equity measures in order to redress historical discriminatory barriers which severely disadvantaged black employees. Organisations are therefore obliged to implement what is morally correct and "to do the right thing".

Previous attempts by South African organisations towards implementing remedial measures to rectify past imbalances have resulted in less than satisfactory outcomes, with a disparate representation of black employees at the senior occupational levels, and imbalanced skills development opportunities in favour of white employees (CEE, 2012/2013 Annual Report). The call for South African organisations to adhere to the EE legislative requirements in conjunction with the observed serious shortage of black talent, requires organisations to place a high priority on employment equity, through specifically targeted skills development and human resources development strategies. It is critical that organisations have the appropriate strategies in place in order to appropriately address the attraction, development and retention of black employees.

Research confirms that supporting training and development provides beneficial positive outcomes for both individuals and organisations (ASTD (American Society for Training and Development, 1999); Birdi, Allan, & Warr, 1997; Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, & Bravo, 2011; Koster, de Grip, & Fourage, 2011). From the individual perspective, employee development is considered an important imperative for individuals and their careers, providing them with marketable skills (Lynch, 1991; Mincer, 1988). Ng, Eby, Sorensen and Feldman (2005) found that having access to training and development activities is a relatively good predictor of career success. On the other hand, from the organisational perspective, offering employee development as a benefit to employees, can be used as as a strategic competitive advantage (Mitchell et al., 2001). According to Pfeffer (1994), the development of human resources is considerably less vulnerable to replication, and the competitive advantage to be achieved is more sustainable than achievable by other means. Kuvas and Dysvik (2009) add that when organisations offer organisational inducements such as providing development opportunities, employees become prosocially motivated and have the desire to exert additional effort to the benefit of the organisation.

Moreover, the acquisition of new competencies and skill-sets by employees on a continuous basis can contribute to a process of life-long learning reflective of a vibrant organisation with positive growth potential (van Dijk, 2005).

The findings of previous researchers (Contagiannis, 2007; Mitchell et al., 2001; Schlemmer & Lee, 1991) have critical implications for the development of black employees and their career success in South African organisations. This includes, amongst others, 1) the re-dress of historical racial discrimination, 2) substantial human resource development initiatives for the upliftment of disadvantaged black employees, 3) the provision of equal employment, and 4) recourse for advancement of black employees in the senior management level of organisations (Jinabhai, 2004). Organisations that focus on intrinsically important variables such as providing development opportunities and meaningful and challenging work are considered to derive benefit by eliciting increased levels of affective commitment amongst employees (DeConinck & Bachmann, 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Michand, 2001). Hence, the current study places emphasis on employee development as an important facilitator of the career development and career success of black employees. Moreover, organisations seem to be challenged in their pursuit of the above imperatives due to the changing nature of careers.

1.1.6 Changing nature of careers.

Research conducted by Sutherland and Jordaan (2004) suggest that the older career theories seem to no longer hold, and claim that job satisfaction and organisational commitment do not lead to the loyalty or retention of employees. Literature reveals that careers have traditionally been viewed in a linear fashion, where individuals advance vertically within a single organisation over the course of a career (Driver, 1982).

Friedman, Hatch and Walker (1998) add that the notion of a permanent job is no longer patently evident. They point out that as organisations become increasingly dependent on knowledge-workers, it may become evident that the tenure of these workers is reduced. Gaertner and Nollen (1989) state that past employment practices

rewarded tenure with occasional promotions which were believed to lead to employee commitment and retention.

In addition, certain organisations and scholars have promoted employability as the outcome of an alternative employment relationship (Craig, Kimberley, & Bouchikhi, 2002; Estienne, 1997, Galunic & Anderson, 2000; Illies, Forster, & Tinline, 1996; Waterman, Waterman, & Collard, 1994). According to Baruch (2001), employability is a concept that emerged due to a growing perception that employees cannot rely on their employers for long-term employment. Employability is an incentive to employees that they will have the skills to find new employment, should they unexpectedly lose their jobs. The notion of employability is that employers offer individuals the opportunity to develop skills that make them broadly employable as a replacement for job security. Under this implicit agreement, employability replaces long-term job security and employees are free to develop organisational commitment and to willingly remain with their employer (Craig et al., 2002; Waterman et al., 1994). The question whether the employment relationship based on employability is sustainable, ultimately depends on whether employees who participate in these programmes and acquire marketable skills are more committed and willing to remain with a company without a solid promise of job security.

1.1.7 Traditional approach to careers.

An early definition of careers from the *Oxford English Dictionary* defines it as "a person's course or progress through life (or distinct portion)" and adds the qualifier "especially when publically conspicuous or abounding in remarkable incidents". A further early definition of career describes it as "a succession of related jobs, arranged in a hierarchy of prestige, through which persons move in an ordered predictable sequence" (Wilensky, 1960, p. 554). Van Maanen and Schein (1997, p. 31) define a career as "an organised path taken by an individual across time and space". In contrast, social psychologists define career as "an individually mediated response to outside role messages" (Arthur, Hall, & Lawrence, 1989, p. 10). Moreover, economists define careers as a "response to market forces," and political scientists view careers as "the enactment of self-interest" (Arthur et al., 1989, p. 10). Arthur et al. (1989, p. 8) claim the common dominator to the afore-mentioned perspectives

broadly include "the evolving sequence of a person's work experiences over time". In addition, Greenhaus, Callanan and Godshalk (2010, p. 12) define career as "the pattern of work-related experiences that span the course of a person's life".

According to Hind (2005), the traditional career was viewed as taking place in the confines of organisational boundaries. Similarly, Kallinikos (2004) suggests the "old" or traditional career can best be described as an organisational context which were hierarchically ordered, centrally planned and controlled. Arthur (1994) argues that traditional careers in which individuals move forward vertically within organisations, have been irrevocably compromised. However, some authors hold the view that the traditional career is still prevalent, and that organisational careers are still a preferred option for people seeking stability and structure (Ackah & Heaton, 2004; Collin, 1998; Guest & McKenzie-Davey, 1996; Jacoby, 1999). In the traditional career, employees invested themselves in the organisation and in return the organisation provided job and career security as typified by Whyte's "organisation man" (Whyte, 1956). Capelli (1999a) maintains that careers were in essence managed by the employer, were linear, hierarchical and relatively secure. According to Piore (2002), the internal labour market structures in more traditional-type organisations have undergone substantial change due to downsizing, re-structuring and outsourcing. In similar vein, Soeters and Schwan (1990) claim that due to downsizing, organisations are no longer able to offer the same internal career structures.

Baruch and Rosenstein (1992) define careers as a process of development of the employee along a path of experience and jobs in one or more organisations. Baruch (2006, p. 127) maintains that careers are undergoing "certain shifts and transitions" rather than a complete restructuring of traditional career paths. McDonald, Brown and Bradley (2005) claim that, although there is far greater emphasis on individuals taking personal responsibility for their career development, traditional career paths are still offered by certain organisations and sectors.

There is debate on whether individuals want careers which offer independence more than employment security (Clarke & Patrickson, 2008), career self-management (Maguire, 2002; Sturges, Guest, Conway, & Davey, 2002) and the new transactional

psychological contract, versus the old relational psychological contract (Baruch, 2006). Lee (2001) argues there has been a fundamental change in the psychological contract between employer and employee in the changing paradigm of work. According to Rousseau (2004) psychological contracts are reasonably stable mental models that embody promises perceived by employees which they believe the organisation has made to them in exchange for their labour. Feldman (2000) shares this view and claims that there have been major implications for careers in the twenty-first century due to the substantial changes in the psychological contract between individuals and organisations. Armstrong and Murlis (1998) note there is no longer an expectation of long term commitment from either party. It is however evident, despite the afore-mentioned debate, that most of the career literature is based on the notion that traditional careers are giving way to new patterns of career that reflect the uncertain environments in which both individuals and organisations now operate (e.g. Arthur, Khapova, & Wilderom, 2005; Baruch, 2006; Pringle & Mallon, 2003).

Rodrigues and Guest (2010) have recently shown that the downfall of the traditional career model is not supported by job tenure data. According to Dany, Louvel and Valette (2011) careers are also shaped by social, family, and employment context factors which provide individuals with expected guidelines and scripts to follow.

Given the changing nature of careers, it is therefore important that both individuals and organisations share responsibility for the changing nature of career success by balancing individual career aspirations with organisational requirements (Ballout, 2007).

1.1.8 New types of careers.

There are several theories that can be used to better understand the changing nature of work and the associated change in types of careers. The following section will emphasise the two most relevant to the current study (i.e. boundaryless and protean career theories).

According to Arthur and Rousseau (1996), the new bases of employee commitment have been undermined by the reality that skilled employees are likely to work for many different employers over the course of their careers. This has led to the emerging paradigm in organisational careers - the concept of the boundaryless career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). Employees develop "boundaryless careers" by changing jobs and companies more regularly (Arthur, 1994; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Eby, Butts, & Lockwood, 2003; Sullivan, 1999; Sullivan, Carden, & Martin, 1998). This perspective emphasises that careers are no longer characterised by a single form, but can take "a range of forms that defies traditional employment assumptions" (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, p. 3). Boundaryless careers "are not bounded, not tied to a single organization, not represented by an orderly sequence, marked by less vertical coordination and stability…put simply, boundaryless careers are the opposite of organizational careers"- careers viewed as unfolding in a single employment context (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, p. 5). According to Peiperl, Arthur and Anand (2002), boundaryless careers transcend organisational memberships, consisting of sequences of experiences across jobs and organisations. Related to the boundaryless career, is the notion of the protean career, which is conceptualised as a self-directed mind-set regarding careers, driven by the person and not the organisation (Hall, 2002). The protean career is based on individually set goals which include the individual's entire life space, driven by psychological success, rather than objective success, such as position, power or pay.

It is clear that the career landscape has significantly changed in the past two decades due to major organisational, economic, social and technological changes (Colakoglu, 2011). Traditional careers linked to vertical progression in a single hierarchy have more frequently been replaced by boundaryless careers associated with less predictable and more frequent lateral mobility across organisational frontiers (Arthur, Inkson, & Pringle, 1999; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; DeFillipi & Arthur, 1996). Both the organisation and the individual are jointly responsible to identify developmental opportunities to improve the individual's chances of career success. However, from a protean career perspective, the individual employee should play a more active role in such career development initiatives.

1.1.9 Defining career management.

Greenhaus, Callanan and Godshalk (2010, p. 12) define career management as "a process by which individuals develop, implement and monitor career goals and strategies". Career management can be briefly described by these authors, as an on-going process in which individuals:

- Collect appropriate information regarding themselves in the work environment,
- Acquire a realistic view of their talents, interests, values, preferred lifestyle, including alternative jobs and organisations,
- Cultivate realistic career objectives,
- Design and implement a strategy to realise these objectives, and
- Receive feedback on the usefulness of the strategy and goals.

Greenhaus et al. (2010, p. 2) claim that "a major premise of career management is that individuals can exert considerable, although not total, control over their careers". They supplement their description of career management with the following definition of career development.

1.1.10 Defining career development.

Greenhaus et al. (2010, p. 13) define career development as "an on-going process by which individuals progress through a series of stages, each of which is characterised by a relatively unique set of issues, themes and tasks". When employees successfully manage their own careers, with some assistance from their organisations, they are more likely to experience career success.

1.1.11 Defining career success.

According to Greenhaus (2003), Heslin (2003), and Sturgess (1999), little attention has been paid to analysing the nature of career success in organisations. Various studies advocate different meanings associated with the career success construct. According to Seibert, Crant and Kraimer (1999, p. 417), career success is defined as "the positive psychological, or work-related outcomes or achievements, one accumulates as a result of work experiences". Career success is also commonly referred to as the positive outcomes of an individual's career experiences (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Arnold & Cohen, 2008; Heslin, 2005). Bozionelos (2008) defined career success expectation as

the expected future achievements of employees in their work lives. In addition, Judge, Higgins, Thoresen and Barrick (1999) define career success as the real or perceived achievements accumulated by individuals as a result of their work experiences. Moreover, Miller (1954) classified the criteria of career success into four different categories: security, career satisfaction, prestige, and social rewards.

Mirvis and Hall (1994, p. 366) define career success as "the experience of achieving goals that are personally meaningful to the individual, rather than those set by parents, peers, an organization, or society". Dany (2003) provides an alternative theory, that people's definitions of career success are fashioned on an on-going basis throughout their lives, and subsequently change whenever changes in their personal lives have an impact on their priorities.

The above definitions of career success reflect various mainstream notions of contemporary career theory and provide a basis for the various attributes of career theory. Research however alludes to the urgent call for an adequate conceptualisation of the meaning of career success in both qualitative and quantitative terms (Poole, Langan-Fox, & Omodei, 1993; Heslin, 2005).

Human capital theory (Becker 1964) supports the search for the causes of career success. Human capital refers to the educational, personal, and professional experiences of individuals. Becker (1964) claims that one's human capital should be highly relevant for predicting career success given that a high value is placed on human capital in the labour market. Moreover, research has shown that circumstantial situations such as chance events, fate, and luck were perceived as important factors in individuals' career decision-making and career development (Bright, Pryor, Chan, & Rijanto, 2009; Bright, Pryor, Harpham, 2005; Hirschi, 2010).

One framework conceptualised by Hughes' (1958) makes the theoretical distinction between objective and subjective career success. Hughes (1958) defines objective success as directly observable, measurable, and verifiable by an impartial third party, whilst subjective career success could be described as job satisfaction.

Moreover, career literature differentiates between extrinsic and intrinsic dimensions of career success, which show intercorrelations and interdependence (Gattiker & Larwood, 1998; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995; Judge, Kammeyer-Meuler, & Bretz, 2004; Melamed, 1996).

The following section briefly highlights these two perspectives.

1.1.12 The objective career success perspective.

Poole et al. (1993, p. 39) refer to the term "objective career" as "the observed progress of an individual through an organization or occupation and mostly involves extrinsic measures such as occupational grouping, responsibility, pay, and class". Arnold and Cohen (2008) and Bozionelos (2004) are in agreement with Poole et al. (1993) and refer to objective career success as visible and verifiable accomplishments such as salary, salary growth, proximity to Chief Executive Officer (CEO), and number of promotions or hierarchical status.

1.1.13 The subjective career success perspective.

Subjective career success may be defined as the individual's personal and internal apprehension and evaluation across any aspects that are important to the individual (Hall & Moss, 1998). Intrinsic success refers to individuals' feelings and reactions related to their careers. This type of success is typically assessed in terms of psychological success, such as career satisfaction, career commitment, and job satisfaction (Gattiker & Larwood, 1998; Judge et al., 1995).

Although literature recognises the distinction between the objective and subjective career perspectives, the objective career perspective seems to have received more attention in the past. However, the contemplation of subjective career success has become significantly more important. It is more commonly believed that only individual employees by their own accord, can implicitly define and evaluate their own degree of career success with specific reference to individually defined standards, career stages, aspirations, needs and values (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Betz & Fitzgerald, 1997; Gattiker & Larwood, 1986) in their quest for highly diverse and distinctive career paths. Instead of asserting that subjective career success is

"taking over" from objective career success, it would be more apt to advocate that there is an increasing awareness that career success is a social construction rather than an objective reality (Adamson, Doherty, & Viney, 1998; Chen, 1997; Collin & Young, 1992; Mallon & Cohen, 2000; Young, Valach, & Collin, 1996), a dynamic, rather than a static truth (Savickas, 2005) which evolves alongside historical and cultural contexts (Stead, 2004).

The current researcher supports the view of subjective career success held by the afore-mentioned authors in the changing paradigm of careers. Hence, the current study places significant emphasis on understanding the antecedents of subjective career success, which refers to the career satisfaction about all aspects which are relevant to a specific individual (Greenhaus et al., 1990). In the following section, employee development as an enabler of career success will be discussed.

1.1.14 Employee development as an enabler of career success.

Research on employee development has identified behavioural variables (involved in development), situational variables (support for employee development in an organisation), as well as stable individual differences as predictors of career success (Major, Turner, & Fletcher, 2006; Maurer, Lippstreu, & Judge, 2008). Literature reveals that supporting and promoting employee training and development provides positive outcomes for employers and employees (ASTD (American Society for Training and Development), 1999; Birdi et al., 1997; Koster et al., 2011; Kraimer et al., 2011).

According to the Society for Human Resource Management (2008), one of the most prevalent actions that organisations have taken, in response to pressing trends in the workplace, is investing in training and development initiatives in order to advance employee skill levels. Similarly, employee development has become an important imperative for employees as part of their careers (Hall & Mirvis, 1995). Ng et al. (2005) showed that training and development opportunities were positively related to salary, promotions, and career satisfaction, and it was a relatively good predictor of career success. Maurer, Weiss and Barbeite (2003) found a correlation between employee development and job involvement, which suggested a link between job attitudes and employee development.

Although research from management science and psychology places emphasis on employee development as a benefit provided by companies, a further subset in the extant body of knowledge adopts an alternative view on development interventions which provide employees with marketable skills. For example, human capital theory claims that developing skills that are useful across a spectrum of organisations increases the chances of external job opportunities, and that it is likely that employees will market their skills elsewhere (Lynch, 1991; Mincer, 1988). In a similar vein, labour economics theory assumes that providing marketable skills to employees increases job alternatives and turnover (Krueger & Rouse, 1998; Lynch, 1991). According to Mitchell et al. (2001), offering excellent employee development benefits should assist in making jobs more attractive in comparison to other companies. In addition, these authors claim that employees are less likely to leave a company if it means giving up a significant benefit (Mitchell et al., 2001). While organisations should take human capital development seriously, there is a collective responsibility of the individual employee to actively develop themselves and enhance their own careers and their value to the organisation. It is clear from contemporary research that investing in employee development can provide positive benefits to both employees and the organisation.

Moreover, according to Hall and Mirvis (1995), the notion of taking personal responsibility for continuous learning and one's own self-development, has become a critical career success factor, and is also critical for organisational effectiveness (Senge, 1990). Davenport and Prusak (1997) suggest that employees who continuously acquire new skills and knowledge are one of the most important resources that companies have in the competitive business environment. When it comes to employee development, many organisations use a personal responsibility strategy, meaning that employees are personally responsible for their own learning and development (American Productivity and Quality Centre, 1996).

The previous section provided an overview of the context within which the current study will be conducted. In the following section, the theoretical framework which will guide the current study is provided.

1.2 Theoretical Framework for the Current Research Project

The current study suggests that there are both organisational and individual variables influencing career success (objective and subjective). The organisational-level predictors include leadership variables, organisational characteristics and resources. The individual-level predictors include psychological characteristics.

The literature overview (See Chapter 2) has uncovered a number of salient variables that may play a role in the career success of an employee. In the following section, the first organisational-level variable, namely transformational leadership will be discussed.

1.2.1 The notion of transformational leadership.

Yukl (2006), claims that the term leadership originated from common vocabulary and was subsequently included in the technical vocabulary of the scientific domain, without being accurately redefined. Janada (1960) maintains that as a result, this term has extraneous connotations which convey the ambiguity of its meaning. In this regard, Bennis (1959, p. 259) made an observation which still seems to hold true today:

> *Always, it seems the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. So we have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it … and still is not sufficiently defined.*

Theories of implicit leadership suggest that leadership is a function of followers' perceptual expectations. Followers process information about their leaders based on cognitive schemata which provide a cognitive basis for understanding and responding to managerial behaviour (Dorfman, Hanges, & Brodbeck, 2004; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). Social interaction influences interpretations and draw people's interpretations together, making their interpretations more similar (Rentsch, 1990).

Transformational leadership is a concept that embraces mutual engagement while attempting to achieve a common goal. It transforms followers and organisations through the promotion of selfless ideals that encourage performance beyond expectations (Phipps, Preito, & Verma, 2012). García-Morales, Jiménez-Barrionuevo

and Gutiérrez-Gutiérrez (2012, p. 1040) maintain that transformational leadership can be defined as "the style of leadership that heightens consciousness of collective interest among the organization's members and helps them to achieve their collective goals".

Transformational leadership attempts to create emotional links with its followers and inspires higher values. Such leadership transmits the importance of a shared mission by infusing a sense of purpose, direction and meaning into the followers' labour (Bass, 1999). Bass and Avolio (1993) argue that beyond providing a vision, transformational leaders engage in "inspiration" behaviours which build subordinates' self-confidence with respect to goal attainment. Leaders who convey high expectations promote the self-efficacy and motivation of subordinates, and ultimately establish norms for individual initiative, achievement-oriented behaviours, and goal-attainment (Eden, 1992). In contrast, transactional leadership involves an exchange process that may result in follower compliance with leader requests, but is not likely to generate enthusiasm and commitment to task objectives (Bass, 1985).

The relationship between transformational leadership and subjective career success may be linked to the role that transformational leaders play in terms of challenging employees positively (Bass & Avolio, 1990). By challenging employees, they increase their willingness to exert effort in their job, leading to successful performance which in turn results in more performance satisfaction and fulfilment (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Heuven, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2008). According to Bass (1998), transformational leaders motivate their followers to perform beyond expectations by evoking followers' higher order needs such as achievement (Bass, 1998).

Transformational leaders seem to facilitate the allocation of resources to their subordinates to solve work problems and manage their work more efficiently (Cheung & Wong, 2011, p. 661). In the following section, the role of the construct job resources, as found in literature is presented.

1.2.2 The role of job resources.

Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli (2001) maintain that job resources refer to the extent to which the job offers assets/opportunities to individual employees. Job resources include those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that: (a) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, (b) are functional in achieving work goals, and/or (c) stimulate personal growth, learning and development.

According to Demerouti et al. (2001), resources may be placed at the level of the organisation (e.g. salary, career opportunities, job security); at the level of interpersonal and social relations (e.g. supervisor and co-worker support, team climate); at the level of the organisation of work (e.g. role clarity, participation in decision-making); and at the level of the task (e.g., performance feedback, skill variety, task significance, task identity, autonomy). Resources at the level of the task induce so-called critical states (e.g. meaningfulness) which drive people's attitudes and behaviours (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Job resources can play an intrinsic motivational role (by developing employee growth, learning and development) or an extrinsic motivational role (by being instrumental in achieving work goals) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

The theoretical basis for the relationship between job resources and subjective career success is that organisations may provide important resources such as supervisor support and training and skills development opportunities to employees that may serve as cues to employees that they are valued and possess career potential. These cues are then likely to elicit favourable affective reactions, including higher levels of career satisfaction and a stronger sense of career success (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). When employees have access to job resources, such as supervisor support and training and skills development opportunities, they are likely to be more successful in their careers. It is also plausible that as a consequence of career success, employees may be noticed by other senior managers in the organisation, which may improve their internal marketability (Johnson, 2001). This success may also be noticed by managers from other organisations, which may influence their perceptions of external

marketability (Johnson, 2001), which may ultimately increase their own perceptions of career success.

Research suggests that when employees perceive the availability of organisational resources (i.e., training, autonomy and technology) which assist in the removal of obstacles at work, they feel more engaged in work. This in turn has a very positive impact on climate perceptions (Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005). In the following section the role of a supportive organisational climate in the pursuit of career success is explored.

1.2.3 The role of a supportive organisational climate.

Drawing from previous research on organisational climate, Luthans, Norman, Avolio and Avey (2008, p. 225) define a supportive organisational climate as "the overall amount of perceived support employees receive from their immediate peers, other departments, and their supervisor that they view as helping them to successfully perform their work duties".

Caudron (1993) and Schein (1993) state that a supportive organisational climate is essential in promoting a learning organisation. Similarly, Lee et al. (2003) suggest that by using the motivational processes of social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, employees who experience a healthier organisational learning culture, may experience a greater sense of career satisfaction and exhibit a higher level of commitment. Social exchange theory explains "how power is gained and lost as reciprocal influence processes occur over time between leaders and followers in small groups" (Yukl, 2006, p. 158). The most basic form of social interaction is an exchange of benefits which may include material and psychological benefits such as approval and respect. In the exchange process, individuals learn to participate in social exchanges and develop expectations of reciprocity.

Advocating challenging work, open communication, trust, innovation, and cohesion among employees are essential attributes defining a supportive organisational climate. Organisational climate seems to enhance an individual's career success through the facilitation of learning new knowledge that is important to perform well

in the workplace (Nabi, 2000, 2001). The facilitation of learning seems to be based on the notion of an organisational learning climate (Parker, Arthur, & Inkson, 2004). It is likely that employees will perceive their managers as supportive, when they create a climate supportive of learning. Employees may enhance their skills if they take advantage of the opportunities created by managers (i.e. providing support for learning). This may ultimately lead to improving their chances of experiencing career success.

Supportive leadership is related to a concern for the welfare of followers and facilitating a desirable climate for relationships between leaders and followers. A climate of supportive leadership is one in which followers perceive that leaders are highly supportive of them and encourages their development and empowerment (Schyns, van Veldhoven, & Wood, 2009). In addition, leaders have the power to provide job resources to employees which may lead to the development of a supportive organisational climate. It is likely that the perceptions of the availability of job resources may lead to perceptions of a supportive organisational climate. It is plausible that employees, who perceive their environment as supportive, are likely to feel more empowered. In the following section, the role of psychological empowerment is explored.

1.2.4 The role of of psychological empowerment.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argued that empowerment is multifaceted and its essence cannot be captured by a single concept. They defined empowerment more broadly as intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual's orientation to his or her work role i.e. meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. Meaning refers to the value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own ideals or standards (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Competence alludes to an individual's belief in his or her capabilities to perform activities with skill (Gist, 1987). Self-determination refers to an individual's sense of having choice in initiating and regulating actions (Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). Lastly, impact refers to the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work (Ashforth, 1989).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) claim that a major premise of empowerment theory, is that empowered individuals should perform better than those who are relatively less empowered. Spreitzer (1995) argues that empowered employees are likely to be seen as successful because they proactively execute their job responsibilities. This is because they see themselves as competent and able to influence their jobs and work environments in meaningful ways.

One possible consequence of psychological empowerment is an increase in employees' self-efficacy beliefs (a dimension of psychological capital). If an employee receives positive feedback for the work he or she does within the organisation from others (such as a supervisor), this would likely result in greater feelings of psychological capital (Mathe & Scott-Halsell, 2012, p. 357). In the next section, the individual variable (psychological capital (PsyCap) to be investigated in the current study will be discussed.

1.2.5 The role of of psychological capital (PsyCap).

Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman (2007) argue that PsyCap is a higher order core construct which underlies the four dimensions of hope, resilience, optimism and self-efficacy. In other words, the whole (PsyCap) may be greater than the sum of the parts (optimism, self-efficacy, resilience, and hope). PsyCap (the higher order core construct), represents the commonality among the four component dimensions, and has both conceptual (Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007) and empirical (Luthans et al., 2007) support. PsyCap can be viewed as "who you are" and "what you can become in terms of positive development" (Avolio & Luthans, 2006) and is differentiated from human capital ("what you know"), social capital ("who you know"), and financial capital ("what you have") (Luthans et al., 2004).

These authors state that PsyCap integrates the various positive organisational behaviour (POB) criteria - meeting capacities, not only additively, but also perhaps synergistically. Positive organisational behaviour is a newly emerging focus on a positive approach that has been defined by Luthans (2002b, p. 59) as follows:

> *the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement.*

In order to differentiate from other positive approaches, the following criteria were set for including constructs in this definition of positive organisational behaviour: (a) grounded in theory and research; (b) valid measurement; (c) relatively unique to the field of organisational behaviour (OB); (d) state-like and hence open to development and change as opposed to a fixed trait; and (e) have positive impact on work-related individual-level performance and satisfaction (Luthans, 2002, a,b; Luthans et al., 2007). Using these criteria, the positive psychological constructs that have been determined to meet the inclusion criteria so far include hope, resilience, optimism and self-efficacy and when combined, represent what has been termed as psychological capital or PsyCap (Luthans, Luthans & Luthans, 2004; Luthans et al., 2007).

Two longitudinal studies have found support for the influence of self-efficacy on job satisfaction or perceived career success (Higgins, Dobrow, & Chandler, 2008; Saks, 1995). Moreover, research has shown PsyCap to be positively related to individuals' work performance (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011). Recent career research has shown self-efficacy and hope to be associated with career development skills and outcomes (Sung, Turner, & Kaewchinda, 2013), and expected career performance and satisfaction (Concklin, Dahling, & Garcia, 2012).

It is further important to understand the conditions under which people respond with regard to their personal career success criteria in order to develop and activate appropriate human resource interventions in organisations. There is a large body of research which reveals several antecedents related to individual career success. The following section provides the rationale for the selection of the specific antecedents for the current study.

The current researcher believes it is important to comprehend how the first antecedent identified for the current study, namely leadership, affects the career success of individual employees. According to Riaz and Haider (2010), leadership is

one of the crucial aspects in increasing organisational performance. These authors claim given that leaders are responsible to develop and execute strategic organisational decisions, they need to optimally develop and deploy organisational resources, including human resources. More specifically, transformational leadership is defined as a style of leadership that transforms followers to transcend their own self-interest by impacting their values, ideals, and interests and inspiring them to to perform better than expected (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1999). Moreover, the relationship between transformational leadership and career success may be related to the role that transformational leaders play by challenging them positively (Bass & Avolio, 1990) to achieve career success. Therefore, the current researcher hypothesises that transformational leadership behaviour demonstrated by leaders is likely to positively impact career success.

Next, literature highlights the importance and impact of the antecedent job resources on career success. Organisations provide important resources to employees which seem likely to affect their career success. Social capital is a notion receiving substantial focus in empirical literature given that it can advance our ability to explain various processes and outcomes such as career success. For example, interpersonal processes such as mentoring and network resources can assist in career success through access to powerful others, and by gaining emotional and inspirational support (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Therefore, the current researcher hypothesises that when employees have access to job resources, that it is likely they would be more successful in their careers.

In addition, career research has examined the impact of organisational environment influences, such as the human resource management environment of the organisation (Nabi, 2001), leadership style of superiors (Kuo, 2006), and individual employees' organisational experiences (Nabi, 2000). More specifically, previous studies have identified organisational climate as an important characteristic facilitating learning and enhancing individual subjective career success. Given the importance of organisational climate in the human resource management environment, the current researcher therefore hypothesises that a supportive organisational climate is likely to positively impact individual career success.

Further, the concept of empowerment has its origins in topics such as intrinsic motivation, social learning theory, participative decision-making and self-management (Liden & Tewksbury, 1995). Research supports the notion that psychological empowerment will be related to individual performance and satisfaction (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Spreitzer, 1995; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997; Thomas & Tymon, 1994). Empowerment theory suggests that empowered individuals should perform better than those who are relatively less empowered (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). The current researcher therefore hypothesises that when employees are psychologically empowered, they are more likely to experience greater levels of career success.

In addition, the final antecedent identified for the current study, namely, PsyCap, is conceptualised, measured and developed in terms of a state-like positive core construct to which individual resources of self-efficacy, hope, optimism, and resilience, contribute in a synergistic way (Luthans et al., 2007). Empirical studies report positive correlations between self-efficacy and subjective career success (Day & Allen, 2004; Valcour & Ladge, 2008). Thus, the current researcher therefore hypothesises that employees with higher levels of PysCap, are more likely to experience positive perceptions of subjective career success.

In summary, the current researcher has identified the above-mentioned specific antecedents of career success from the plethora of antecedents found in literature. If managed correctly, these antecedents would enable organisations to promote circumstances that would facilitate the career success of black employees in the South African work environment. Consequently, the current study attempts to gain insight into the interplay between the selected antecedents and subjective career success.

1.3 Research Initiating Question

The current study is guided by the following research initiating question:

Which organisational and individual factors influence the experience of subjective career success amongst black employees in the South African work environment?

1.4 Aim of the Current Study

The present research study will develop and evaluate an exploratory theoretical model containing the most salient latent variables that impact on the subjective career success of employees from the black designated group.

1.5 Specific Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between subjective career success (dependent variable) and organisational variables, such as leadership characteristics and behaviours, organisational characteristics, such as job resources and organisational climate, and psychological characteristics and past job experiences?

2. Can a conceptual model be built, depicting the combined influence of organisational variables, such as leadership characteristics and behaviours, organisational characteristics, such as job resources and organisational climate, and psychological characteristics and past job experiences on subjective career success?

In order to provide the theoretical basis for the proposed research questions and propositions, a detailed discussion of the theoretical support for the sequential model will be provided in Chapter 2 (Literature Review).

1.6 Possible Contribution of the Current Study

The rationale for investigating the relationship between leadership characteristics and behaviour, organisational resources and climate, psychological characteristics and past job experiences and subjective career success is rooted in and supported by research evidence that these constructs do indeed positively influence career success. It is therefore critically important to understand how these constructs are related to one another and how these constructs in turn can influence and elicit such behaviour. This research is expected to contribute to the existing understanding of the career success of black employees in general, and specifically in terms of the following:

- No previous research study, investigating these specific constructs, has been locally conducted.

- The combination of organisational and individual constructs has not yet been integrated in such a way to understand their influence on subjective career success. Previous research only investigated the various variables separately.
- Mixed-method methodologies have been lacking in previous research on subjective career success, and
- Realistic workplace environments will be used to determine the impact of the specified variables on subjective career success.

1.7 Structure of the Chapters

In the following section, the structure of the chapters to follow is outlined.

Chapter 2

In this chapter, an overview of the literature (as related to subjective career success) will be provided. Emphasis will be placed on the predictors of subjective career success, namely organisational and individual variables.

Chapter 3

This chapter provides a discussion of the methodology used in the current study. The chapter elaborates on the variant of the mixed-method exploratory sequential design employed to answer the two research questions related to Phase 3. In general, the current study will be executed in three phases: Phase 1 (Qualitative Strand), Phase 2 (Quantitative Strand/Pilot Phase), and Phase 3 (Quantitative Strand/Main Study). Each of these three phases will be discussed in terms of the (1) research design, (2) sample design and procedure, (3) data collection technique, (4) data analysis technique.

Emphasis will be placed on evaluating the factor structure of each of the measured constructs, statistically describing the correlations between the measured constructs (emphasising Pearson's r), statistically exploring the conceptual model of relationships between the constructs (by means of structural equations modelling and the partial least squares path modelling approach).

Chapter 4

In this chapter, the results obtained in each of the three phases of the study will be presented. With regard to the qualitative results, emphasis is placed on the themes from the interviews. With regard to the quantitative results, emphasis will be placed on the psychometric properties associated with each of the measuring instruments. In addition, a detailed explanation is provided on the process followed in identifying an optimal model representing those variables influencing subjective career success.

Chapter 5

Using theory, an explanation of the relationships as depicted in the theoretical model is provided. This is followed by an overview of the contributions made by the current study. Recommendations for improving the limitations of the current study are also provided. The chapter ends with recommendations regarding intervention strategies to enhance the subjective career success of black employees.

1.8 Summary

The current chapter provided the historical context that prevented employees of the black designated group from reaching their full potential and being successful in their careers. This was followed by an overview of legislation implemented by Government to rectify past imbalances. Organisations do not only attempt to rely on the legislature to rectify past imbalances, but also through career management practices and processes. However, due to the changing nature of careers in general, the responsibility is shifting towards employees as evident from both boundaryless and protean career theories. This requires that both role players (i.e. organisations and individuals) have a role to play in career management.

The dependent variable (career success) was defined in terms of objective and subjective career success. Both organisational-level predictors and individual-level predictors of career success will be identified.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a review of contemporary career theories. Thereafter a theoretical overview of both organisational and individual predictors of career success will be provided. This will include the current literature on each of the respective constructs in this study, namely transformational leadership, past leadership, job resources, past job resources, supportive organisational climate, psychological empowerment, and psychological capital (PsyCap). Relationships between the constructs that have been found in previous literature are highlighted, with specific reference to the anticipated theoretical model.

Four particularly new and important conceptualisations of careers have emerged in recent career literature; the boundaryless career, the protean career, the intelligent career, and the post-corporate career.

2.2 Contemporary Career Theories

Stead et al. (2006, p. 13) state that "career theories should be clear about the terms, constructs, and theoretical frameworks they describe. Brown (1984) maintains that a promise of a good theory is that it assists us to understand not only what happens, but also why it happens. Brown (1994) further adds that career theories provide researchers with directions that are helpful in exploring career development.

2.2.1 Boundaryless career theory.

It is apparent that perspectives on careers have changed. The traditional organisational career, once seen as the norm, is now regarded by many as more relevant to the last century (Baruch, 2004; Inkson & Arthur, 2001; Kuijpers & Scheerens, 2006). Models such as the boundaryless career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), protean career (Hall, 1996), intelligent career (DeFillipi & Arthur, 1994), and the post-corporate career (Peiperl & Baruch, 1997) are characterised by flexible employment contracts, multiple employers, lateral job moves and multiple career changes.

DeFillipi and Arthur (1994) initiated the concept of the "boundaryless career". A boundaryless career refers to a "career that transcends boundaries" (Verbruggen, 2012, p. 289). According to Chudzikowski (2012), the boundaryless career is associated with high career mobility, which in turn is associated with the career success of individuals. According to Arthur and Rousseau (1996, p. 6), the boundaryless career is characterised by "independence from, rather than dependence on, traditional organisational career arrangements". The latter authors (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) advocate six different meanings of boundaryless careers listed below:

1. Where individuals move across boundaries of separate employers to work on various projects.
2. Where individuals gain marketability external to their current employer.
3. Where individuals rely on external networks for career advancement.
4. Individuals break through traditional organisational assumptions regarding hierarchy and advancement.
5. Individuals turn down career opportunities for personal or family reasons.
6. Based on interpretations by individuals who may perceive their careers as boundaryless, irrespective of structural complaints.

Arthur and Rousseau (1996) point out that the above six meanings include both physical mobility (e.g., lateral movements within an organisation or moving across separate organisations), as well as psychological mobility (e.g., perceptions held by individuals regarding alternate career options).

According to Sullivan and Arthur (2006, p. 21) there has recently been increased focus on boundarylessness in terms of both "physical mobility" or "actual movement between jobs, firms, occupations and countries", and "psychological mobility", or "the capacity to move as seen through the mind of the career actor". The latter authors suggest that psychological boundarylessness may manifest itself as a belief that it would be relatively easy to move across organisations, or that extra-organisational networks have created working relationships that support current or future employment.

According to Briscoe, Hall and Frautschy DeMuth (2006) the incorporation of psychological boundarylessness takes cognisance of the fact that an individual could embrace a boundaryless mind-set, yet rely on a single organisation to develop their career. This means that employees may physically remain with one organisation, but perceive their career as boundaryless, provided that there are many career opportunities that could still possibly be explored.

Boundaryless career theory takes a behaviouralist/competency-based approach, characterised by a focus on developing multiple skills. Integral aspects of the boundaryless career include developing networks, portable skills, and the ability to effectively handle change (DeFillipi & Arthur, 1994). In pursuing a boundaryless career, the focus shifts from climbing the corporate ladder to a career that is enacted via a series of lateral, vertical and spiral moves (Currie, Tempest, & Starkey, 2006). This notion is a new type of employability, which is a short-term transactional contract, in which the individual takes active responsibility for managing her/his career rather than leaving this to the organisation. The "locus of responsibility" is transferred from the organisation to the "career actor" (Arthur, 1994, p. 304). In this approach, individuals work for more companies on a wider range of projects. The boundaryless career has been referred to as one in which the individual moves from job to job, or from organisation to organisation, thus transcending organisational boundaries (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; DeFillipi & Arthur, 1996).

The following table summarises the differences between the traditional career model and the boundaryless career concept.

Table 2.1

Comparison of Traditional and Boundaryless Careers

	Traditional	Boundaryless
Employment relationship:	Job security for loyalty	Employability for performance and flexibility
Boundaries:	One or two firms	Multiple firms
Skills:	Firm specific	Transferable
Success measured by:	Pay, promotion, status	Psychologically meaningful work
Responsibility for career management:	Organisation	Individual
Training:	Formal programs	On-the-job
Milestones:	Age-related	Learning-related

Sullivan (1999)

In the following section, the notion of the protean career is elucidated.

2.2.2 Protean career theory.

The "protean career" named after the Greek God "Proteus", is one in which individuals are willing and able to rapidly re-shape and reform themselves in response to changing environmental circumstances (Inkson, 2006). The protean career is viewed as being driven by the individual and not the organisation, based on personally established goals, which include the entire life domain, and are being driven by psychological success, rather than objective success, such as pay or position (Hall, 1996). The notion of the protean career is an individual-focused approach with the individual as the one in control (Hall, 1996) driving his/her own success in multi-organisational settings. While the traditional career takes place within organisational boundaries, the protean career takes place across multiple boundaries. It is characterised by "a values-driven attitude" (individual values rather than organisational values), and "a self-directed attitude towards career management" (Briscoe & Hall, 2006, p. 31).

According to Hall and Mirvis (1995), under the protean perspective, careers are fluid and flexible, whereby the individual engages in continuous learning. The contract is

with the individual and her/his work, rather than with the organisation. These authors suggest that an individual who adopts a protean career orientation, welcomes the opportunity to explore new options, and seeks psychological success through lateral or spiral career moves. Hall (2004, p. 6) claims that two meta-competencies have been identified as underpinning a successful protean career: "adaptability" and "identity" (self-awareness). The afore-mentioned author maintains that a true protean careerist will develop both these meta-competencies which will facilitate self-evaluation followed by adaptive responses. Moreover, this adaptability helps individuals to survive in difficult work environments, while still maintaining their personal values.

The boundaryless career has the shortcoming of not making reference to the self-directed nature of careers, such as suggested by the protean career. The definition of the boundaryless career presented above seems to make specific reference to "boundarylessness" in the context of moving across organisational boundaries (i.e. from one organisation to another). However an alternative view on "boundarylessness" can also refer to movement across functional boundaries within a single organisation. Both the boundaryless career and protean career theory should be combined to better understand careers. It is therefore advisable that individuals should apply self-directed behaviour (i.e. taking responsibility for their own careers) by being open to shape their careers either within a single organisation, but across functions, or across organisational boundaries.

2.2.3 Intelligent career theory.

DeFillipi and Arthur (1994) introduced the concept of the "intelligent career", a different behavioural view which emphasises self-knowledge or self-awareness. This career concept involves three "ways of knowing": knowing-why, knowing-how, and knowing-whom. "Knowing why" alludes to the individual's work motivation and identification with the employing company culture. "Knowing-how" refers to career relevant competencies which support individual behaviours in their current role. "Knowing-whom" has to do with interpersonal relationships and networks able to support career opportunities.

2.2.4 Post-corporate career theory.

Peiperl and Baruch (1997) refer to the notion of the "post-corporate career" as a behavioural view which emphasises vision and self-identity. This concept suggests that career paths evolve horizontally and not vertically in the post-corporate world. According to Peiperl and Baruch (1997), employees will have more opportunities in current and future careers as horizontal career development transcends vertical paths.

In the following section, the objective career success perspective will be defined. This will be followed by a definition of the subjective career perspective.

2.3 Defining the Objective Career Success Perspective

Jaskola, Beyer, and Trice (1985) claim that extrinsic career success alludes to the objective component of career success (i.e. occupational status, promotions, and pay). In addition, Heslin (2005) defined extrinsic career success as directly observable, measurable, and verifiable by a third party. According to Zikic, Bonache and Cerdin (2010), the objective career is determined by both contextual and individual factors. The context presents individuals with structural opportunities and constraints where organisational, occupational and relational contexts are characterised by certain gate-keeping activities which influence how individual's abilities are interpreted and valued (King, 2004; O'Mahoney & Bechky, 2006). In addition, the organisation can provide individuals with relevant resources to enhance career development. Moreover, the objective career is shaped by unique individual competencies or limitations.

For the purpose of the current study, objective career success, as conceptualised by Thorndike (1934; 1963), will be defined as directly observable accomplishments in terms of salary progression and number of promotions.

In order to understand the plethora of individuals' subjective responses to their objective careers, it is important to elucidate the subjective career perspective.

2.4 Defining the Subjective Career Success Perspective

Career literature has generally paid more attention to objective career success, due to the fact that traditional career patterns dominated much of the research on careers (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Sullivan, 1999). Careers should always be viewed as embedded in the continuously changing societal, political, and economic contexts (Arthur et al., 1999; Mayrhofer, Meyer, & Steyrer, 2007).

According to Evans, Gunz and Jalland (1997), new organisational trends such as downsizing and outsourcing have reduced some of the traditional objective indicators of career success and the relative desirability of vertical progression through promotion (Hall, 2002; Reitman & Schneer, 2003). Given that objective success criteria are out of an individual's personal control, they are liable to be contaminated, as well as be deficient (Campbell et al., 1970). According to the latter authors, employees seek more than just objective outcomes from their career.

According to Hall (2002) people may not necessarily feel successful as a result of high salaries and promotions. Burke (1999) argues that people may indeed conversely experience work and personal alienation. Subjective outcomes are also desired, such as work-life balance (Finegold & Mohrman, 2001), sense of meaning (Wrzesniewski, 2002), purpose (Cochran, 1990), and transcendence (Dobrow, 2003).

Ballout (2007) suggests that subjective career success reflects the individual's perceptions of satisfaction and success in which emphasis is on the individual rather than the organisation. Hall (1996) noted that subjective career success becomes more relevant since an individual potentially has a much greater responsibility to take in career development. From the subjective side, individuals view their success as a function of their own internal standards and perceptions of satisfaction and success in social networks and relationships.

According to Barley (1989), the subjective career perspective alludes to the way that the career is evaluated and directly experienced by the individual. From this perspective careers are personal and unique accounts and depend on individuals' internal and self-generated guides for success (Gunz & Heslin, 2005; Khapova, Arthur,

& Wilderom, 2007) such as individually defined goals and the notion of psychological success rather than objective success such as pay or position (Briscoe & Hall, 2006).

Arthur et al. (2005) reveal that in 68 studies over a 10 year period on career success, the majority of research focussed on objective success, with a limited amount of research into both objective and subjective career success, or on individual's own definitions of career success. Arthur et al. (2005, p. 196) state:

> *"…not one of the articles sampled involved listening directly to research subjects, or even allowing them to nominate their own criteria for career success. While the purpose and design of any paper may be worthy, the overall body of empirical work on career success seems to be seriously lacking in such qualitative input".*

Schein (1978) argues that it is important to establish whether people considered to have hierarchical and financial success are also satisfied with their career. According to Gattiker and Larwood (1998), subjective career success is most commonly operationalised as either job or career satisfaction. Judge et al. (1999) argue that as individuals who are dissatisfied with many aspects of their jobs are unlikely to consider their careers to be successful - job satisfaction is the most prevalent aspect of subjective career success.

Friedman and Greenhaus (2000) conducted a survey on 800 business professionals on the relative importance of 15 possible career success indicators. This study revealed a much greater emphasis placed on subjective career success criteria versus objective criteria. In this study the researchers identified five dimensions of the meaning of career success, namely status, time for self, challenge, security, and social. With the exception of status, these results reveal a considerable emphasis on subjective career success criteria that go beyond the objective outcomes of prestige, power, money, and advancement.

Parker et al. (2004) suggests that the subjective career reflects an individual's personal experience of the unfolding of a career. According to Savickas (1997, p. 11), through the subjective career, people interpret their experiences into a coherent pattern, which is often apparent in personal stories that capture the "richness,

uniqueness and complexity of their lives". Hall (2002) maintains that the subjective career offers the individual a particular strength for generating an internal compass for self-direction and taking personal responsibility for their careers.

With jobs and career patterns being less long-term and stable, individuals who are successful are those who are able to remain value-adding to their present employer and are viewed as marketable by other organisations (Bird, 1994; Sullivan et al., 1998). This suggests that perceived internal marketability (beliefs that one is valuable to her/his current employer) and perceived external marketability (beliefs that one is valuable to other employers) are two additional indicators of career success (Eby et al., 2003).

The following definitions of subjective career success by Greenhaus et al. (1990) and Johnson (2001) will be utilised for the purposes of the current study.

Subjective career success (career satisfaction) is defined as feelings of satisfaction and accomplishment in one's career (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Internal marketability is defined as beliefs that one is valuable to his or her current employer (Johnson, 2001), while external marketability is defined as beliefs that one is valuable to other employers (Johnson, 2001).

In the following section, internal and external careers, related to the subjective and objective career perspectives, are described.

2.5 Internal and External Careers

Related to the subjective and objective career perspectives, Derr and Laurent (as cited in Arthur et al., 1989) differentiate between the concepts of the internal and the external career. The internal career refers to the individual's personal subjective sense about their work life and their role within it, whereas the external career alludes to the construction and interpretation of various external stimuli and circumstances. These authors claim that the usefulness of distinguishing between these two perspectives is imbedded in the two important focus areas of career dynamics, namely the aspiration of the individual, versus occupational "realities".

One may broadly distinguish the internal from the external career by viewing the internal career as predominantly "subjective", as perceived by the individual, and the external career as "objective", typified by organisational realities, such as opportunities and constraints. In other words, the crux of the internal career is the individual's concept of themself within the organisational context, and the essence of the external career, is the individual's perceptions of the specific organisational context itself (Derr & Laurent, as cited in Arthur et al., 1989).

Similar to the above notion, differences in type, duration and sequence of work experiences, are seen as important dependent and independent variables, representative of outward manifestation of external careers (Stephens, Bird, & Mendenhall, as cited in Feldman, 2002). These authors however suggest that a more comprehensive conceptualisation of careers also includes internal careers (i.e. inflows, outflows and transformation of individual and organisational knowledge resulting from the sequences of various work experiences). In this sense, careers are viewed as repositories of knowledge and information (e.g. skills and network relationships). As such, changes in work experiences are seen as the primary means by which careers develop, however they are not careers themselves.

In general, theory suggests that there are organisational and individual predictors of career success. The discussion that follows will firstly explore the general predictors related to career success, integrating four streams of research (Ayree, Chay, & Tom, 1994; Boudreau, Boswell, Judge, & Bretz, 2001; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Ng et al., 2005; Rosenbaum, 1989; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001; Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999).

2.6 Predictors of Career Success

In the following section, the general organisational predictors of career success will be discussed.

2.6.1 Organisational predictors of career success.

Organisational sponsorship and structural predictors of career success form the basis of the following overview.

2.6.1.1 Organisational sponsorship.

Organisational sponsorship represents the extent to which organisations provide special assistance to employees to facilitate career success. These antecedents include career sponsorship (the extent to which employees receive sponsorship from senior-level employees that help them enhance their careers), supervisor support, training and skill development opportunities, and organisational resources (Dreher & Ash, 1990). Given that organisational resources provided by an organisation do not necessarily represent sponsorship, the size of an organisation can partly indicate the amount of sponsorship resources which an organisation has available to provide to its employees (Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991). Research conducted by Ng et al. (2005) has found that organisational sponsorship variables such as career sponsorship, supervisor support, training and skill development opportunities, and organisational resources were related to career success. In addition, research has shown that various types of social capital such as sponsor-protégé and mentor-protégé relationships are important for career success (Chao, 1990; London & Stumpf, 1983; Whitely et al., 1991).

In line with the notion of organisational sponsorship, Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson and Sowa (1986) offer the concept of perceived organisational support (POS), to explain the development of employee commitment to an organisation. Perceived organisational support is defined by the way in which an employee is treated by an organisation and influences the employee's interpretation of organisation's motives which underpins the treatment. These researchers suggest that employees develop global beliefs regarding the extent to which the organisation places value on their individual contributions and cares about their welfare. These authors add that these global beliefs would lead to increased rewards. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) argue that given the positive effect on employee commitment and job satisfaction it seems logical to suggest that POS is related to career success.

In addition, these authors suggest POS may enhance the individual's personal competence, a factor also related to career success. Perceptions of being valued and supported by the leadership of an organisation, lead to desired employee behaviours, including organisational commitment and trust, and subsequently to valued rewards (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). In addition, Rhoads and Eisenberger

(2002) found POS to be positively associated with opportunities for recognition and pay and promotion. In similar vein Noe (1996) claims that supportive supervisors affect individuals' willingness to engage in development activities and are crucial for subordinate performance and success. In other words, subordinates' careers may be enriched by supportive relationships with supervisors and peers. According to Greenhaus et al., (1990) social support provided by leaders may take the form of career guidance and information, learning opportunities and challenging work assignments which promote career advancement (Greenhaus et al., 1990).

2.6.1.1.1 "Knowing whom".

There are several career competencies (DeFillipi & Arthur, 1994) that seem to influence career success. One career competency that seems to be related to organisational sponsorship is "knowing whom". The latter refers to developing career-related networks and contacts (Arthur et al., 1999; DeFillipi & Arthur, 1994). Parker and Arthur (2000, p. 105) indicate that the result of investing in this career competency is the development of "career communities", networks which provide avenues for career support and personal development. According to Kram (1985), mentoring relationships are important development experiences for individuals and valuable sources of learning. Arthur (1994) claims that "knowing whom" competencies also provide access to new contacts and possible new job opportunities.

According to Arthur and Rousseau (1996) and DeFillipi and Arthur, (1996), networks are considered essential elements of success in the boundaryless career. Networking is defined as "behaviours that are aimed at building, maintaining, and using informal relationships that possess the (potential) benefit of facilitating work-related activities of individuals by voluntarily granting access to resources and maximizing common advantages" (Wolff & Moser, 2006, pp. 196-197). The afore-mentioned authors suggest that with less job security among today's employees, individuals need to be well connected within their company, as well as look outside the organisation for support and development assistance. Higgins and Kram (2001) add that networking inside and outside the organisation can help individuals to stay on top of new developments and approaches.

Ng et al. (2005) provide a perspective on upward mobility which seems to be related to the organisational sponsorship predictor of career success.

2.6.1.1.2 Upward mobility perspective.

According to Ng et al. (2005) research on upward mobility is relevant to career success given that individuals who have the ability to move up the organisational or societal hierarchy would typically be regarded as successful and are more likely to also view themselves are successful. Turner (1960) argued that there are two upward-mobility systems in society, namely sponsored-mobility and contest-mobility. According to this author, sponsored-mobility allows only those individuals chosen by powerful others to obtain upward mobility. The sponsored-mobility system posits that established elite individuals provide special attention to those individuals seen to have high potential and then sponsor various activities to assist them in winning the competition.

In contrast, the contest-mobility system holds the central tenet that all individuals can compete for upward mobility. The contest-mobility view suggests that on-the-job performance and the ability to add value to the company is what makes the most significant impact on making progression in the company. Rosenbaum (1989) claims that from the contest-mobility perspective of career success, a career consists of an on-going tournament in which all compete in a fair and open marketplace - success is a function of past accomplishments and self-improvements. This perspective alludes to the observable, objective measures of career success, such as an individual's job mobility, promotions, and compensation (Lam, Ng, & Feldman, 2012; Stumpf, 2007).

It is likely that the contest-mobility system is relevant to the individual predictors of career success. Moreover, the current researcher prefers the contest-mobility system, given that open competition for upward progression seems a more fair and just process, versus the sponsored-mobility system which purposefully advantages a few select individuals.

The following section will discuss the second organisational predictor of career success which is the structural characteristics of the organisational environment.

2.6.1.2 Structural predictors.

This perspective is based on management theory of the company and the vacancy model which advocates that organisational factors such as organisational size and internal promotional practices are prerequisites for successful individual organisational careers (Ayree et al., 1994; Rosenbaum, 1989). The structural approach to career success suggests that certain structural characteristics either contribute positively to help or negatively limit individuals in advancing their careers (Ballout, 2007). The concept of managerialism (Tosi, Werner, Katz, & Gomez-Meja, 2000) suggests that pay (objective measure of career success) is primarily a function of organisation size.

This notion suggests that large organisations are more likely to facilitate career mobility and success so that employees' pay increases as they move up the corporate ladder. According to Gattiker and Larwood (1998), the frequency of promotion is an important measure of career mobility and success, given its value to individual's progressing up the corporate ladder. Aligned to this notion, Oliver (1997) suggests that large organisations reward "fast trackers" with upward career paths. Empirical studies support the structural approach to career paths (McDonald et al., 2005).

The previous section provided an overview of the general organisational predictors of career success. The general individual predictors of career success are emphasised in the following section.

2.6.2 Individual predictors of career success.

The individual predictors of career success include the following categories, i.e. human capital, as well as behavioural, socio-demographic, and stable individual differences (Boudreau et al., 2001; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Seibert & Kraimer, 2001; Wayne et al., 1999).

2.6.2.1 Human capital.

This approach draws on individual variables found in the literature on human capital and motivational theories. Moreover, this approach focuses on the individual as the party who develops his/her own human capital and therefore maximizes her/his investments in skills development and education skill for achieving success in their careers (Ballout, 2007). Human capital theory establishes a firm theoretical basis for conceptualising the individual approach to career success. Becker's (1964) human capital theory suggests that individuals who invest the most in human capital attributes such as education, training, and experience are expected to show higher levels of work performance and subsequently obtain higher organisational rewards. This theory suggests that an individual's career advancement depends on the quantity and quality of human assets she/he brings to the labour market. Research conducted by Ng et al. (2005) and Tharenou (2001) support the positive relationship between human capital variables and career success.

Research indicates that human capital variables have a significant impact on career success because they can explain a large portion of the variation in salary (Cannings, 1988; Chenevert & Tremblay, 2002), as well as in the number of promotions (Stewart & Gudykunst, 1982). In addition, researchers have found investments individuals make in education and experience to be the strongest and most consistent predictors of career progression (Dreher & Ash, 1990; Tharenou, Latimar, & Conroy, 1994). Kirschmeyer (1995) found work experience and tenure to be strongly related to objective and subjective career success.

2.6.2.1.1 "Knowing how".

One career competency that seems to be related to human capital is "knowing how". This refers to career-relevant skills and job-related knowledge which accumulate over time and contribute to both the organisation's and the individual's knowledge base (Arthur et al., 1999; Bird, 1996; DeFillipi & Arthur, 1996). According to DeFillipi and Arthur, (1996) emphasis should be placed on developing a broad and flexible skill base which is transportable across different organisations. Moreover, emphasis should also be placed on occupational learning, rather than job-related learning (DeFillipi & Arthur, 1996; Gunz, Evans, & Jalland, 2000). In addition, Arthur et al., (1999) claim

that individuals high on career identity (London, 1993; Noe, Noe, & Bachuber, 1990), should spend time and energy developing skills and competencies which should increase their worth both internal and external to the organisation.

The next approach, namely the behavioural approach plays a complimentary role to that of human capital in understanding the individual predictors of career success.

2.6.2.2 Behavioural approach.

The behavioural approach contends that individuals are able to exercise a certain level of control over their career choice and opportunities for advancement and are able to implement various tactics and career plans which impact their career success (Gould & Penley, 1984; Greenhaus, Callanan, & Godschalk, 2000). Gunz, Jalland and Evans (1998) maintain that an important conceptual basis for this approach is that individuals should engender a proactive role in managing their own careers, and develop strategies, instead of being reliant on company career systems. Gould and Peneley (1984) suggest that individuals should consider using interpersonal and intrapersonal career behavioural strategies such as self-nomination and networking. This approach assumes that career achievement is a function of certain career strategies, including political influence behaviour.

2.6.2.2.1 "Knowing why".

The final career competency that seems to be related to the behavioural approach to career success is "knowing why". This competency answers the question of why in terms of how it relates to career motivation, personal meaning and identification (DeFillipi et al., 1994, p. 117). This competency is linked to an individual's "motivational energy to understand oneself, explore different possibilities, and adapt to constantly changing work situations (Arthur et al., 1999). In addition, this competency "allows individuals to decouple their identity from their employer and remain open to new possibilities and career experiences (Arthur et al., 1999).

The second category of individual predictors of career success which is socio-demographic, will be discussed in the next section.

2.6.2.3 Socio-demographic.

Socio-demographic antecedents reflect individuals' demographic and social backgrounds (e.g. gender, race, marital status, & age) (Ng et al., 2005). According to Ng et al. (2005) socio-demographic characteristics are often utilised as criteria for sponsorship. For example, due to traditional race and gender stereotypes, ethnic minorities and women may be less likely to be selected for career development purposes (Kanter, 1977). Tharenou (1997) maintains that discrimination seems to exist based on organisations expecting women, on average, to be less productive or to leave an employer sooner than men, and thus they allocate individual women to lower-level positions than men. Similarly, due to racial stereotypes, non-whites may be viewed as less competent or deserving of organisational sponsorship in comparison to whites (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Moreover, demographic factors have been shown to explain more variance in career success than any other set of predictors (Gattiker & Larwood, 1988, 1989; Judge et al., 1995).

The final category of individual predictors of career success is stable individual differences which will be discussed in the following section.

2.6.2.4 Stable individual differences.

Stable individual differences are likely to play an important role in determining one's career success, given that careers unfold over time and are often driven by an individual's enduring behaviours and attitudes (Boudreau et al., 2001; Seibert et al., 1999). Stable individual differences refer to dispositional traits and include the Big Five personality factors (Costa & McCrae, 1992) of Neuroticism, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Openness to Experience, as well as proactivity (Bateman & Crant, 1993) and locus of control (Spector, 1982). Neuroticism is likely to be negatively related to career success, given that characteristics such as anxiety and emotional instability may negatively impact job performance and career management strategies (Boudreau et al., 2001; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999; Seibert et al., 2001; Turban & Dougherty, 1994). However, in contrast, conscientiousness (i.e. higher dependability and stronger achievement orientation) is likely to be positively related to career success due to the consistent relationship between conscientiousness and career success (Barrick & Mount, 1991). According to Judge,

Bono, Illies and Gerhardt (2002), the extent to which an individual is outgoing and assertive (extraversion) should be positively related to career success, given that these attributes are important for job roles which require interpersonal interaction. Moreover, research suggests that agreeableness may be advantageous in that good working relationships may enable better performance and career success (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001). In addition, openness to experience is not linked to career success, with the exception of jobs that require creativity (Thomas et al., 2005).

According to Feldman (2002), planning one's career is important for determining career success, which is often underpinned by an individual's internal attributes. Moreover, Seibert et al. (1999) states, given that career and organisational life is loaded with "weak situations", stable traits, such as personality, are likely to play an important role. According to Ng et al. (2005) stable dispositional traits are likely to affect career success in both the contest-mobility model, as well as the sponsored-mobility model. Similarly, Turban and Dougherty (1994) maintain that dispositional traits may attract or deter sponsorship, which may also impact career success.

The previous section provided an overview of the general predictors of career success. The following section will provide an overview of those variables selected for the current study on the basis of their inferred role as predictors of career success. These predictors include organisational variables (transformational leadership, job resources, and a supportive organisational climate) and individual variables (psychological empowerment and psychological capital).

2.7 Predictors of Career Success in the Current Study

Previous researchers have attempted to identify individual and organisational factors that facilitate employees' career success (for example, Boudreau et al., 2001; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Seibert et al., 2001; Wayne et al., 1999). As alluded to in Chapter 1, researchers seem to generally measure career success by one of two methods. The first method consists of constructs which measure objective career success and include objective indicators such as salary and promotions that can be objectively viewed by other individuals (Judge et al., 1995). The second method is through the

subjective experience of career experiences, such as career satisfaction (Judge et al., 1999).

With regard to an organisational variable such as leadership, which seems to impact career success, a study by Sossik and Godshalk (2000) found that transformational leadership behaviours impact followers' perceptions of career success. In addition, regarding the organisational variable of job resources, Seibert et al. (2001) found that access to resources was positively related to employees level of career satisfaction (a dimension of subjective career success). In another study, Wayne et al. (1999) highlight the impact of organisational resources on career success and found a significant relationship between training and career satisfaction. In addition, a study by Cobb-Clark and Dunlop (1999) found that participation in training and development activities is related to promotion rates. Moreover, Dreher and Ash (1990) found a positive relationship between mentoring and objective career success, namely, salary level and promotions. In a further study, mentoring was found to be positively related to subjective career success (Joiner, Bartram, & Gareffa, 2004; Eby et al., 2003; Fagenson, 1989). Further, Greenhaus, Parasuraman and Wormley (1990) found a positive relationship between organisational sponsorship and career satisfaction. Moreover, previous studies have found that organisational climate seems to enhance individual career success through learning of new knowledge (Nabi, 2000, 2001).

In addition, previous research has also identified various individual variables that influence career success, namely, human capital (Becker, 1964), individual behavioural factors (Gould & Penley, 1984; Greenhaus et al., 2000), socio-demographic factors (Ng et al., 2005), and stable individual differences (Boudreau et al., 2001; Seibert et al., 1999). Seibert, Kraimer and Liden (2001) maintain that employees who experience greater levels of psychological empowerment regarding their careers should experience greater satisfaction with their careers. Moreover, a study by Abele and Spurk (2009) found a significant positive bivariate correlation between occupational self-efficacy (a dimension of psychological capital) and career satisfaction (a dimension of subjective career success).

In the following section, the first organisational predictor, namely leadership, will be discussed.

2.7.1 Transformational leadership (Organisational variable).

During the 1980's, researchers started to focus on the emotional and symbolic aspects of leadership. These processes are useful in elucidating how leaders influence followers to sacrifice their own self-needs, and place the organisation's needs or mission above their own. Contemporary research on leadership primarily focuses on the two main dimensions of leadership, namely transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leadership hinges on leader-follower exchanges, where followers perform at the resolve of leaders, whereas transformational leadership demonstrates the other extreme, where leaders change the attitude of followers, inspiring their own interests in conjunction with that of the organisation (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership theory has been the most influential leadership theory of the last two decades (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). The current researcher is of the view that transformational leadership includes a particularly important type of leadership behaviour required in today's challenging business environment which seems to hold the key to inspire followers to achieve their own personal interests in parallel to achieving the organisation's vision.

Various transformational (inspirational) leadership theories were based on the notion of the transformational leadership construct developed by Burns (1978). However, there has been significantly more empirical research on Bass's (1985, 1996) formulation of the transformational leadership theory in comparison with any of the others. According to Bass (1985), the crux of the theory is the distinction between transformational and transactional leadership. The two types of leadership were defined in terms of component behaviours used to influence followers and the effect of the leader on the followers. This author claims that transformational and transactional leadership are distinct, but not mutually exclusive processes. Transformational leadership increases follower motivation and performance more than transactional leadership, but effective leaders use a combination of both types of leadership. With transformational leadership, the followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do (Bass, 1985).

According to Bass (1985), the leader transforms and motivates followers by (1) making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes, (2) inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organisation or team, and (3) activating their higher-order needs. Transformational leadership behaviours extend transactional leadership, the mutual exchange process between a leader and follower, by expressing high performance expectations, articulating an exciting vision, and providing individualised support (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Through these behaviours, transformational leaders align team members' goals and values, and foster collective optimism, team efficacy, and identification with the team, which in turn leads to increased performance among employees and organisations (Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011).

According to Puth (2002, pp. 72-73) transformational leaders can be recognised in various ways:

> *They regard themselves to be change agents, they are courageous risk-takers, they believe in people and try to empower others, they act according to a well-articulated set of core values, they are continuous learners who learn from their mistakes, they can deal with complex, ambiguous and uncertain problems and situations, they dream and share these dreams with others.*

In addition, Puth (2002, p. 70) states that successful transformational leaders "make their purpose clear to those around them, not by force, coercion, or formal authority, but by their sincere devotion to people and purpose by their patient perseverance in the face of all obstacles".

Moreover, George and Jones (2005) maintain that transformational leaders transform followers in three significant ways:

1) They are able to promote followers' awareness of the importance of doing tasks well;
2) They cultivate the personal growth and development needs of followers; and
3) They motivate followers to work for the good of the organisation.

Bass and Riggio (2006) suggest that transformational leadership behaviours should be ideal in any setting, industry or culture. Based on data collected in 62 different

countries, the Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness Research Program (GLOBE) (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004), found that charismatic/value-based leadership and the team-oriented dimensions were contributing to a leaders' success in nearly all cultural contexts. According to Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla and Dorfman (1999), the afore-mentioned two leadership dimensions are now regarded as universally endorsed, suggesting that managers around the world generally presume these behaviours to contribute to being an outstanding leader. Bass and Riggio (2006) state these dimensions have strong similarities with the transformational leadership theory.

Transformational leadership theory originally formulated by Bass (1985) included three types of transformational behaviour, namely idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. Idealised influence refers to behaviour that arouses strong follower emotions and identification with the leader. Intellectual stimulation refers to behaviour that increases follower awareness of problems and influences followers to view problems from a new perspective. Individualised consideration is indicative of behaviour that provides support, encouragement, and coaching to followers. A revision of the theory added another transformational behaviour referred to as inspirational motivation, which includes communicating an appealing vision, using symbols to focus subordinate effort, and modelling appropriate behaviours (Bass & Avolio, 1990). These four dimensions of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), are briefly described below:

2.7.1.1 Dimensions of transformational leadership.

In the following section, the dimensions of transformational leadership are discussed.

2.7.1.1.1 Idealised influence.

Bass (1985) considered idealised influence (charisma), to be the most important element of transformational leadership and believed that the charisma of the leader is the vital driver of the transformational leadership process. Al-Swidi, Nawawi and Al-Hosam (2012), agree with Bass that the idealised influence (or charisma) dimension is one of the most important elements of the transformational leadership concept. This implies that leaders with a transformational leadership style are respected, admired,

and trusted because of their beliefs, values and attitudes. Loon, Lim, Lee and Tam (2012, p. 195) maintain that transformational leaders are goal-oriented, and encourage the completion of work based on a collective sense of beliefs, values, purpose, vision and mission. The afore-mentioned authors maintain that transformational leaders clearly communicate and translate the vision into specific goals linked to individual followers, and encourage an open learning climate for individuals to successfully complete their goals. Berson and Avolio (2004) maintain that transformational leaders encourage their followers to learn the essential requirements for completing their goals. Boehnke, Bontis, DiStefano and DiStefano (2003) contend that transformational leaders pay individual attention to enhance the levels of self-efficacy and self-confidence of their followers, which will encourage their followers to engage in learning for growth and development purposes.

According to Avolio (1994, p. 1567) "leaders engender trust from and serve as role models for followers". Transformational leaders are seen by their followers as role models, due to the strong emotional attachments and personal identification between leaders and followers (Al-Swidi et al., 2012). Kirkbride (2006) stresses that when transformational leaders operate as role models, they demonstrate unusual competence, celebrate achievements, and use their power to positively manage the work environment. Since the influence process between leaders and followers is not automatic, Yukl (2006) suggests both leaders and followers make attributions about each other's competence and intentions.

According to Sosik and Godschalk (2000) trust in the leader and model-learning are two further career-boosting characteristics of transformational leadership – These authors indicate that transformational leaders are perceived by their followers as trustworthy and are respected as role-models. In addition, transformational leaders who exhibit idealised influence may enhance their followers' ability to take considered risks to advance their careers (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Moreover, effective transformational leadership behaviour is expected to enhance followers' career development in this way.

2.7.1.1.2 Inspirational motivation.

Avolio (1994, p. 1576) states "leaders are seen as inspirational, providing symbols and emotional appeals to increase follower awareness and understanding regarding mutually desired goals". According to Jung and Sosik (2002), through using inspirational motivation, leaders assist followers to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the group. Bass (1990, p. 21) states that transformational leadership "occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance for the purposes and mission of the group, when they stir their employees to look beyond their self-interests for the good of the group". Jung, Yammarino and Lee (2009) suggest that when transformational leaders create a clear vision of the future, it may be related to how followers see their work fit in the overall goals of the organisation, facilitating a shared sense of having meaningful work. In line with Jung and Sosik (2002), Antonakis (2003) suggests that inspirational motivation provides employees with a clear sense of purpose and subsequently increases motivation. Additionally, it has been asserted that the inspirational motivation approach of leaders helps employees to visualise the future picture of the organisation and prevents followers from wavering in organisational change through providing information as to what needs to be done and why (Wu & Shiu, 2009). Bass and Avolio (1997) state that transformational leaders motivate their followers by utilising various methods, such as emotions, logic, and career goals, that are relevant and attractive to their individual followers.

2.7.1.1.3 Intellectual stimulation.

Bass and Riggio (2006) argue that through intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders encourage their followers to question their existence in the organisation and how their work fits in with that of the remainder of the organisation. Similarly, Seltzer and Bass (1990) stressed that leaders should have the ability to stimulate learning and challenge followers' intellectual capabilities by setting higher goals and targets. Avolio (1994, p. 1568) advocates that intellectually stimulating leaders move their followers to question the "old way of doing things" approach to approaching problems from different angles, and from alternative perspectives. Loon et al. (2012, p. 195) maintain that intellectual stimulation is the ability of the leaders to inspire followers to "think out of the box" when solving problems, thereby resulting in

innovation and creativity. According to Bass and Avolio (1997) transformational leaders do not encourage their individual employees to follow their instructions blindly, but promote the thinking abilities of subordinates by having them question orthodox ways of doing things. Studies have shown that leaders who demonstrate higher levels of transformational leadership behaviours, achieve greater levels of employee effort, performance, and organisational effectiveness (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006).

2.7.1.1.4 Individualised consideration.

According to Yukl (2006) this dimension includes providing support, encouragement and coaching to followers. Leaders pay attention to each individual's need for growth and achievement. Avolio (1994, p. 1568) states that "the leader recognizes and elevates follower needs and pushes them to higher levels of potential… individually considerate leaders focus on ways to encourage followers to improve their capabilities and take on more challenging goals and opportunities… they show empathy and concern for their followers". Leaders play the role of coaches and mentors to develop the individuals' potential by identifying their individual uniqueness (Al-Swidi et al., 2012). According to Avolio and Bass (1995), the behavioural component of individualised consideration (coaching and mentoring), does not only place emphasis on the greater good of the organisation, but also pays specific attention to the needs of individual employees where equity is emphasised to a greater extent rather than equality.

According to Bass, Avolio, Jung and Berson (2003), transformational leaders have the ability to recognise that not all individuals have similar levels of skill, experience, and personal needs. Hence, specific attention is paid to understand each individual's needs and accordingly adjust assistance in terms of each individual's abilities and special needs. Bass et al. (2003) add that individualised consideration serves as an antecedent to establishing a learning culture by developing a supportive climate which engenders learning and trust. According to Coad and Berry (1998), transformational leadership encourages organisational learning by promoting intellectual stimulation and providing inspirational motivation to employees.

According to Bass (1985), transformational leaders motivate their followers to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the group. As a consequence, such leaders are able to bring a deeper level of understanding and appreciation of input from each individual member. Bass (1985) further argued that such leaders encourage followers to think critically and to seek new ways to approach their jobs. The pursuit of seeking new ways to approach problems and challenges motivates followers to become more involved in their duties, which results in an increase in the levels of employees' satisfaction with their work and commitment to the organisation. This position has received support empirically. For instance, work by Dvir, Eden, Avolio and Shamir (2002) demonstrated that transformational leaders had direct effects on followers' motivation, morality and empowerment. Barling, Weber and Kelloway (1996) reported a significant effect of transformational leadership on followers' organisational commitment and unit level financial performance.

According to Avolio and Bass (1988), it is possible that transformational leaders, by encouraging followers to go beyond their immediate needs and addressing the long-term interests of their organisations, are able to mobilise higher levels of commitment from their followers for the common good of the organisation. Bass (1998) argues that when transformational leaders show respect and confidence, they motivate their followers to work hard to improve organisational effectiveness. By showing respect and confidence in their followers, transformational leaders are able to bring a high degree of trust and loyalty on the part of followers to the extent that followers are able to identify with the leader and the organisation (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The afore-mentioned authors claim that as a result, followers trust in and emotionally identify with the leader, to such an extent that they are willing to stay with the organisation – even under very difficult circumstances.

In addition, Avolio (1999) and Bass (1998) have argued that transformational leaders cause followers to become attached to the organisation and work toward group goals. These authors suggest that by encouraging followers to think deeply about the obstacles confronting them in their jobs, transformational leaders are able to help followers develop a better understanding of what needs to be done to be successful, resulting in reduced withdrawal behaviours. Research has confirmed that

transformational leadership is negatively related to withdrawal behaviours (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003).

According to Korek, Felfe and Zaepernick-Rothe (2010), a transformational leader directs her/his behaviour toward the entire group, by setting goals, fostering team spirit, and developing a specific climate. Research shows that the existence of shared perceptions within working groups is associated with positive outcomes for individuals and organisations, for example group effectiveness (Tesluk, Vance, & Mathieu, 1999), and well-being (Bliese & Britt, 2001). According to the social identity theory, people within groups identify and evaluate themselves as a unit and define themselves not only in terms of interpersonal relationships ("I") but also in terms of collective attributes of the group to which they belong ("we") (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). According to the latter authors, these types of collective attributes can include the attributes of the new leader. Felfe and Heinitz (2010) add that when groups agree that their leader is transformational, there would be positive outcomes for individuals in organisations. The above seems to speak to a supportive climate.

The predictor transformational leadership seems to be related to the organisational sponsorship predictor of career success as discussed earlier in Chapter 2. Organisational sponsorship is a predictor of career success by way of supervisor support (Dreher & Ash, 1990). Employees may experience support from their supervisor when the latter exhibits "empathy and concern" (individualised consideration dimension of transformational leadership) (Avolio, 1994, p. 1568) for their followers.

It is clear that theory supports the positive effects which transformational leadership behaviours seem to have on their followers. The effect of past occurrences (namely, past leadership) on followers' current and future career success is illustrated by the notion of viewing careers as a journey of transitions over one's working life, (Hall, 1976, 1996; Sullivan, 1999; Super 1980), in which there is an implicit understanding that what has already occurred, (e.g., the role of past leadership), will affect current and future career success (Feldman & Ng, 2007; Super, 1980).

For the purposes of the current study the definition of transformational leadership suggested by Bass (as cited in Howell & Avolio, 1993, p. 891) will be used.

> *Transformational leadership goes beyond exchanging inducements for desired performance by developing, intellectually stimulating, and inspiring followers to transcend their own self-interests for a higher collective purpose, mission, or vision.*

In the following section, the relationship between transformational leadership and career success is discussed.

2.7.1.2 The relationship between transformational leadership and career success.

Transformational leadership has been found to contribute to career success in many ways. The theory seems to suggest that both idealised influence and intellectual stimulation may be at the core of explaining transformational leadership's impact on followers' subjective career success (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). "Perceived as trustworthy, respected and admirable role models, leaders who exhibit idealised influence may enhance their subordinates' ability to undertake calculated risks to advance their careers" (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000, p. 370). In this way, effective transformational leadership behaviour may contribute to enhancing the follower's career development and feelings of satisfaction (i.e. career satisfaction) and accomplishment with one's career.

According to Scandura and Schriesheim (1994), supervisory career mentoring (SCM) is viewed as a transformational process whereby the commitment demonstrated by a mentor to a protégé's career development is resultant in extra-organisational investment. Career development (and ultimately career success) may be enriched when transformational leaders fulfil the mentor role. Sosik and Godshalk (2000) reported that supervisor transformational leadership behaviour was positively related to mentoring.

According to DeFillipi et al. (1994), transformational leadership can be instrumental in providing opportunities for individuals in organisations to develop new skills-sets and build internal and external networks contributing to their career success. This can

produce benefits for an organisation since it increases the knowledge base within the company and may foster cross-fertilisation of ideas and information. In addition, transformational leadership encourage mentoring relationships among their employees, since having externally marketable employees increases the human capital available within the organisation and creates a more competitive applicant pool in the marketplace (DeFillipi et al., 1994).

Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) and Riaz and Haider (2010) found that when leaders communicate a vision of quality in addition to providing intellectual stimulation to followers, both these aspects had a significant (but small) effect on employees' performance quality and quantity. This may ultimately lead to increased perceptions of career success when employees perform their jobs adhering to high quality standards based on challenging goals.

There is a large body of research on the impact of transformational leadership on career success. Moreover leaders also hold the key to unlocking and providing important job resources for their employees. When employees have access to job resources, they are likely to be more successful in their careers. Gaining access to resources may also serve as cues to employees that they are valued and possess career potential. Knowledge that they are valued may further motivate employees and contribute to their performance, and consequently enhance their career satisfaction and perceptions of career success. With a clearer understanding of how the organisational variable transformational leadership influences career success, the second organisational variable (job resources) to be utilised in the current study will be discussed in the following section.

2.7.2 Job resources (Organisational variable).

In the following section, various definitions of job resources are presented.

2.7.2.1 Definitions of job resources.

Bacharach and Bamburger (1995) refer to the concept of job resource adequacy. These authors define this concept as the extent to which individuals have the means at their disposal in their immediate work situation to fully utilise their relevant

abilities and motivation to accomplish work-related goals. Resources needed by individuals to perform their tasks may include equipment and tools, materials, facilities, support services, space, and time (Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006; Jex, Adams, Bacharach, & Sorenson, 2003; Martinez-Tur, Peiro, & Ramos, 2005; Spreitzer, 1996). These resources are generally beyond the control of employees in the sense that they (i.e. employees) have to deal with resources at hand (Bacharach & Bamburger, 1995; Phillips & Freedman, 1984).

Martinez-Tur et al. (2005) posit that when job resources are inadequate, employees may be more or less able to compensate for them. These authors point out that a lack of job resources makes it more demanding for employees to complete their tasks and may diminish performance to levels below their full potential. Specifically, when the supply of job resources is inadequate, the accomplishment of work related goals may be inhibited or impeded (Peters & O'Conner, 1980; Phillips & Freedman, 1984). Spreitzer (1996) adds that this type of situation is likely to make individuals feel frustrated and powerless.

According to Kouvonen, Kivimäki, Vahtera, Oksonen, Elovaino and Cox (2006), social capital may be considered as collective job resources, as it makes reference to features of the group, social relationships, interactions and sharing of information between supervisors and colleagues in informal networks. These authors suggest the shared experience of high levels of social capital in the work environment engenders mutually beneficial cooperation, and elicits perceptions of support, trust and consideration. Moreover, this enables goal achievement and access to further additional resources. Baruch, Bell and Gray (2005) suggest that social capital is revealed in networking and by creating personal contacts.

Job resources will be defined in the current study according to Jackson and Rothmann's (2005) four dimensions (i.e. organisational support, social support, growth opportunities and advancement). Organisational support refers to the relationship with supervisors, flow of information, communication, role clarity and participation in decision making); social support (a sub-dimension of organisational support) refers to the relationship with colleagues and contact opportunities within the organisation;

growth opportunities refers to having enough variety, opportunities to learn and independence in the job, and advancement refers to remuneration, career possibilities and training opportunities.

In the following section, the theories of job resources as found in literature are presented. This is followed by a discussion of the impact of job resources on the construct of career success.

2.7.2.2 Theories of job resources.

Demerouti, Bakker, de Jonge, Jansen and Schaufeli (2001) developed the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model, which assumes that two underlying psychological processes play a role in the well-being of individuals: an effort-driven process in which excessive demands and a lack of job resources lead to distress, and a motivation-driven process in which job resources lead to work engagement (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Job resources refer to the extent to which the job offers assets/opportunities to individual employees. Job resources include those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that: (a) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, (b) are functional in achieving work goals, and/or (c) stimulate personal growth, learning, development (Demerouti et al., 2001). According to Demerouti and Bakker (2011), job resources are physical, psychosocial, or organisational aspects of work which should assist employees in managing work-related pressure.

Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1998, 2001) is a relevant theory for understanding the effects of resources (or the lack thereof) on employees in the working environment. This theory suggests that employees strive to obtain, retain and protect what they value. Resources refer to those personal energies and characteristics, objects and conditions that are valued by individuals or that serve as means for attainment of other objects, personal characteristics, conditions or energies. Examples of resources include social support, job enhancement opportunities, degree of participation in decision-making, being psychologically well, having an optimistic personality, level of autonomy, and established behaviour outcome contingencies (Hobfoll, 1989; Lee & Ashforth, 1996).

The COR theory argues that personal resources affect each other and exist as a resource pool, and that an expansion of one is often associated with another being augmented (Hobfoll, 1989). Bakker (2008) argues that job resources can play an intrinsic motivational role through increasing employees' growth, learning and development. According to conservation of resources (COR) theory (Halbesleben, 2006; Hobfoll, 1985), as referred to in the previous section, job resources like social support or support provided at the departmental level, play an important role in reinforcing positive images of oneself, and in fostering positive work outcomes (Demerouti et al., 2001).

In line with this notion, research has shown that beliefs about the relevance of job resources are equally important in the prediction of job-related outcomes as beliefs about the availability of job resources (de Jonge, Dormann, & Van Nordheim, 2006). Moreover, the less resources people have, the more likely they are to conserve their resource reserves and save them for future use. Despite the perceived availability and relevance of certain job resources in a particular demanding job situation at work, employees may not always be willing to use job resources due to resource conservation (Hobfoll, 1989, 2002). In a similar vein, the Effort-Recovery Model of Meijman and Mulder (1998), suggests that job resources may play an extrinsic motivational role through work environments that offer many resources and foster the willingness to dedicate one's efforts and abilities to the work task. According to this model, support from colleagues, and proper feedback from supervisors, will thus increase the individual's likelihood of achieving work goals, and employees will thus be successful in their daily tasks. According to Coetzer and Rothmann (2005) this will create an energy backflow to the individual, and when the results are positive, the chances for an employee to be engaged will increase. Hence, the tendency for employees to leave the organisation will also decrease if organisations provide their employees with valued job resources that enhance learning, growth and development (Houkes, Jannssen, De Jonge, & Nijhuis, 2001).

As similarly referred to earlier in Chapter 2, the impact of past occurrences (in this case, the impact of past job resources) on an individual's career success, may also be explained by the notion of careers viewed as a journey of transitions over one's

working life, (Hall, 1976, 1996; Sullivan, 1999; Super 1980), in which there is an implicit understanding that what has already occurred, (namely, the role of past job resources), will affect current and future career success (Feldman & Ng, 2007; Super, 1980).

2.7.2.3 Type of resources.

According to the Job Demands-Resources Scale (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005), there are four different resource dimensions: Social support, organisational support, growth opportunities and advancement. Social support or job autonomy plays an extrinsic motivational role in better achieving work goals (Bakker, 2008). For example, a team-related resource such as "social support" may fulfil the basic human need of wanting to relate to others, whereas a task-related resource such as "task autonomy" may fulfil needs for autonomy or competence (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Frederick, 1997; van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008). According to self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) work contexts that support psychological autonomy, competence and relatedness, enhance intrinsic motivation and increase employee well-being (Ryan & Frederick, 1997).

Rousseau and Aubé (2010, p. 323) highlight that both immediate supervisors and co-workers are instrumental in providing job resources in the form of support which creates positive work experiences and that may lead to individuals becoming affectively tied to an organisation. The resources that supervisors and co-workers have are in the form of support that they could potentially provide to employees. Supervisor support encompasses, for instance, caring about subordinates, valuing their contributions, helping them on work-related issues, and facilitating skill-development (Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). According to Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002), the support provided by supervisors may be interpreted as formal interventions to sustain employees' functioning in the organisational setting, given that supervisors are in the position of authority over employees.

In addition, Bakker (2008) suggests that proper feedback from supervisors fosters learning, thereby increasing job competence, whereas decision latitude satisfies the

need for autonomy. This intrinsic motivational potential of job resources is also recognised in more traditional theories such as Job Characteristics Theory (JCT) (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). According to JCT, every job has specific motivational potential that depends on the presence of five core job characteristics: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. Furthermore, JCT proposes that these job characteristics are linked, through so-called psychological states, with positive outcomes, such as high quality work performance, job satisfaction, low absenteeism and low staff turnover (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Co-worker support refers to the degree of assistance enacted by work colleagues (Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2004). The support from co-workers includes the provision of caring, tangible aid, and information to fellow employees (Ducharme & Martine, 2000; Parris, 2003). According to Chiaburu and Harrison (2008), co-worker support is likely to be perceived as informal, since no authority relationship exists with colleagues. According to Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003), the support provided by immediate supervisors and co-workers may increase employees' comfort within the organisation, by fulfilling their needs for esteem, approval, and affiliation.

The predictor job resources seem to be related to the organisational sponsorship predictor of career success, as discussed earlier in Chapter 2. Organisational sponsorship is a predictor of career success by way of organisational resources (Dreher & Ash, 1990). Employees may obtain access to organisational resources (e.g. growth opportunities and organisational support) when their supervisor and co-workers share this with them.

Leaders seem to hold the key to facilitating the allocation of job resources to their subordinates. Thus one could expect that transformational leadership behaviours may enhance follower perceptions of the work environment by providing them with adequate resources. From this viewpoint, one could anticipate that the focus on leadership in a conceptual model may therefore precede job resources. A study by Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) found a significant positive correlation (r= .32) between transformational leadership and core job characteristics, of which autonomy can be viewed as a job resource. In another study, Liaw, Chi and Chuang (2010) found a

significant positive correlation (r= .68) between transformational leadership and perceived supervisor support (the latter being an aspect of job resources). These authors (Liaw et al., 2010) also found a significant positive bivariate correlation (r= .25) between transformational leadership and co-worker support (the latter is an aspect of job resources). Cheung and Wong (2011) found a significant positive correlation (r= .20) between transformational leadership and task support (the latter being an aspect of job resources). In addition these authors also found a significant correlation (r= .17) between transformational leadership and relations support (the latter being an aspect of job resources). Supporting previous studies, a study by Den Hartog and Belschak (2012) found a significant positive bivariate correlation (r= .40) between transformational leadership and job autonomy (the latter being an aspect of job resources).

In addition to the researcher's theoretical convictions, the above four studies provide empirical support to justify the proposed relationship between transformational leadership and job resources.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 1: Transformational leadership is positively related to job resources.

In the following section, the relationship between job resources and career success is discussed.

2.7.2.4 The relationship between job resources and career success.

Seibert and Kraimer (2001) state that access to resources is positively related to career satisfaction, which is regarded as a dimension of career success (Greenhaus et al., 1990).

Interpersonal processes, such as mentoring, have been found to impact career success (Supangco, 2011). Mentoring includes support and sponsorship, which provides protégés with the technical and interpersonal skills, and visibility opportunities that enable them to succeed in their careers (Whitely et al., 1991). Having access to a

mentor positively influences compensation (Whitely et al., 1991; Whitely & Coetsier, 1993); promotability (Wayne et al., 1999) and salary (Daley, 1996). Mentoring was also found to be positively related to subjective career success (Eby et al., 2003; Fagenson, 1989; Joiner et al., 2004).

Adler and Kwon (2002) note that mentors and network resources can assist career progression by providing access to power and influence bases, information, encouragement and emotional support. An individual's network resources within a particular context (e.g. work organisations) include an individual's totality of interpersonal ties of any strength and in any direction (Bozionelos, 2008). The latter author claims that network resources are beneficial to career success, even in the presence of a mentor. Bozionelos (2008) further maintains that networking may even be more beneficial than a mentor.

The theoretical basis for the relationship between job resources and subjective career success is that organisations may provide important resources, such as supervisor support and training, and skills development opportunities to employees that may serve as cues to employees that they are valued and possess career potential. These cues are then likely to elicit favourable affective reactions, including higher levels of career satisfaction and a stronger sense of career success (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Moreover, according to Tanksi and Cohen (2001), perceived supervisory support influences career satisfaction. In similar vein training received by individuals also influences career satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005; Wayne et al., 1999).

When employees have access to job resources, such as supervisor support and training, and skills development opportunities, they are likely to be more successful in their careers. It is also plausible that as a consequence of career success, employees may be noticed by other senior managers in the organisation, which may improve their internal marketability (Johnson, 2001). This success may also be noticed by managers from other organisations, which may influence their perceptions of external marketability (Johnson, 2001), which may ultimately increase their own perceptions of career success.

It was advocated that transformational leadership is conducive to certain organisational resources. In a similar vein, it is plausible that the creation of a supportive organisational climate may be a consequence of transformational leadership behaviours demonstrated by leaders in a work environment. Followers may perceive the provision of resources by leaders as supportive, which may lead to a positive impact on their perceptions of the organisational climate. Research suggests that when employees perceive the availability of organisational resources (i.e., training, autonomy and technology) which assist in the removal of obstacles at work, they feel more engaged in work. This in turn has a very positive impact on climate perceptions (Salanova et al., 2005).

2.7.3 Supportive organisational climate (Organisational variable).

In the following section, the third organisational variable (supportive organisational climate) to be investigated in the current study will be discussed.

2.7.3.1 Definitions, theories, and models of a supportive organisational climate.

Although there has been a significant amount of research on organisational climate, lack of consensus exists on the precise specification of the construct (Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990; Patterson, West, Shackleton, Dawson, Lawthom, Maitlis, Robinson, & Wallace, 2005). According to Glick (1985), authors agree that organisational climate is a complex, multi-level, and multidimensional phenomenon, derived from employees' perceptions of their experiences within an organisation, is stable over time, and widely shared within an organisational unit (Koys & DeCotlis, 1991).

Poole (1985) suggests that climate fits into two main categories 1) typological descriptions, and 2) dimensional descriptions. The first approach views climates as "wholes", for example bureaucratic or democratic type climates, and suggests that these climate types can be rated on dimensions, but must not be reduced to dimensions. The second approach views climates as "dimensional" and assumes that climates are best described as a set of distinct dimensions, each of which is regarded

as a separate variable that is meaningful to organisational members on its own terms ("degree of supportiveness").

According to Rousseau (1988), organisational climate can be defined as perceptions attributed to the work environment. Schneider and Snyder (1975) claim that organisational climate is primarily used as a framework to understand how employees experience their work environment and is distinct from employee satisfaction. Schneider (1975, p. 474) defined organisational climate as "psychologically meaningful molar (environmental) descriptions that people can agree characterise a system's practices and procedures". According to Reichers and Schneider (1990, p. 22), organisational climate pertains to the "shared perceptions of the way things are around here".

De Witte and De Cock (1988) add that organisational climate represents a synthesis of perceptions about a relatively stable set of value orientations of an organisation, which, in turn, influence the behaviour of employees. Denison (1996) suggests organisational climate is rooted in an environment's values, beliefs, and assumptions. According to Sparrow (2001, p. 89), organisational climate taps "individual or personal constructs, which may in the interests of organizational analysis be aggregated across organizations in order to reveal conscious and shared perceptions of the organization's standards and expectations for behavior". Schneider (1990, p. 384) defined climate as "incumbents' perceptions of the events, practices and procedures and the kinds of behaviours that get rewarded, supported and expected in a setting". Schneider, Gunnarson and Niles-Jolly, (1994) state that climate has been described as "the feeling in the air" that one gets from walking around an organisation.

James and James (1989) seem to be in agreement with Glick (1985). These authors advocate that organisational climate is an inherently multilevel construct involving distinct perceptions and beliefs about an organisation's physical and social environment. They state, that at the individual level, the concept of psychological climate refers to individual perceptions of and the meanings they assign to their environment. As a higher level construct, organisational climate reflects beliefs about the organisation's environment that are shared among members and to which

members attach psychological meaning to help them make sense of their environment (James & James, 1989; James & Jones; 1974; Schneider, 1975; Schneider & Reichers, 1983). According to Glick (1985), both psychological climate and organisational climate are viewed as multidimensional phenomena which describe employees' perceptions in an organisation. This author highlights that both these notions are important in assessing employees' perceptions. However, literature shows that little agreement exists on the dimensionality and measurement of the climate construct.

In similar regard, James (1982, p. 219) developed the composition theory which refers to "a specification of how a construct operationalised at one level of analysis (e.g., psychological climate) is related to another form of that construct at a different level of analysis (e.g., organisational climate)". Chan (1998, p. 243) points out that composition models addresses the definition of multi-level constructs by specifying "the functional relationships among phenomena or constructs at different levels of analysis (e.g., individual, team, organisational) that reference essentially the same content but that are qualitatively different at different levels".

Chan (1998) proposed a five-level typology of composition models:

- additive model: wherein higher level constructs are a summation of lower level units;
- direct consensus models: wherein a higher level construct derives its meaning from the consensus among lower level units;
- referent-shift consensus models: wherein lower level units that are formed by consensus are theoretically distinct from the original lower level units;
- dispersion models: wherein a higher level construct derives its meaning from the variance of the lower level units; and
- process composition models: wherein higher level process parameters are analogous to lower level parameters.

Some researchers describe climate by generally specifying dimensions within the dimensional strategy that hold across the organisation (Campbell, Dunette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970; Koys et al., 1991). Litwin and Stringer (1968) argue that climate includes

both organisational conditions and individual reactions. These authors defined organisational environments in terms of nine climate dimensions: (1) structure, (2) responsibility, (3) reward, (4) risk, (5) warmth, (6) support, (7) identity, (8) conflict, and (9) standards.

In addition, Roldan, Soe and Yakura (2004) claim that organisational climate studies typically focus on outcomes such as salary, promotions, and career aspirations. Other research points out that organisational climate is considered an important indicator in career retention decisions, and that it is typically not gender neutral (Guzman, Stanton, Stam, Vijayasri, Yamodo, & Zakaria, 2004). Schneider, Salvaggio and Subirats (2002) argue that strength of climate is important, because it has been shown to relate to such important organisational outcomes as consistency of customer reports of customer service quality. Lindell and Brandt (2000) add it may possibly mediate the relationship between mean climate ratings and various individual and organisational outcomes.

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), and Quinn and McGrath (1985) developed the competing values model, which proposed that organisational climate emphasises the potential for opposing values to exist concurrently in organisations to attain pre-determined goals. The framework suggested by these authors comprises four main quadrants which are associated with various managerial ideologies, including the way in which outcomes may be achieved. These four approaches can be described as (a) the human relations approach, (b) the internal processes approach, (c) the open systems approach, and (d) the rational goal approach. Each of the approaches in the competing values model has been associated with a number of organisational climate dimensions.

Patterson et al. (2005) elaborate that the dimensions associated with the human relations approach are employee welfare, autonomy, participation, communication, emphasis on training, integration and supervisory support. These authors state that formalisation and tradition should be part of the internal process approach and that flexibility, innovation, outward focus, and reflexivity should be associated with the open systems approach. In addition, clarity of goals, efficiency and pressure to

produce, quality and performance feedback is proposed as part of the rational goal approach.

Moreover, Clarke (2002) suggests that climate can be categorised and subdivided into five key themes: (1) structure, (2) rewards and recognition, (3) cohesion, (4) warmth and support, and (5) customer care. Griffith (as cited in Clarke, 2002) concluded that a warm and supportive climate increases employees' job satisfaction and performance at organisational level.

Ferris, Arthur, Berkson, Kaplan, Harrell-Cook and Frank (1998) proposed a social context model that asserts that climate, culture and political considerations serve to mediate the linkages between HR systems and organisational effectiveness. Specifically their theoretical model asserts that cultural values influence types of HR systems, which determine the organisational climate. Climate in turn, affects employee attitudes and behaviour, and ultimately organisational effectiveness. Ferris et al. (1998) conceptualises climate as a set of shared attitudes (among employees), values, and beliefs about how an organisation operates. Relative to organisational culture, these shared perceptions are temporary and changeable.

Schneider (1987) proposed the attraction-selection-attrition hypothesis which was later reviewed by Schneider, Goldstein and Smith (1995). This theory proposes that attraction, selection, and attrition results in organisations containing people with distinct personalities that are responsible for "the unique structures, processes, and cultures that characterize organisations" (Schneider et al., 1995, p. 751). Moreover, these authors point to the importance of organisational leaders whose goals result in the "enactment of specific policies and practices to achieve these goals and the combination of goals and resulting policies and practices yields an organisation characterised by unique structures, processes, and culture" (Schneider et al., 1995, p. 753).

Schneider and Reichers (1983) suggested that structural characteristics, the types of people within an organisation, interaction patterns, and socialisation practices, all play a role in the emergence of organisational climates. These factors are likely to

impact both perceptions of organisational climate and within-organisation agreement concerning climate perceptions. Shared perceptions are a distinguishing feature of organisational climates, which form an institutionalised normative system that guides member behaviour (Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

According to Avery (2004), leaders can affect followers and performance indirectly, by actions such as creating an environment in which employees can work effectively, developing an appropriate culture that helps build employee commitment to organisational goals. Consistent with this, Perryer and Jordan (2005) argue that successful leaders tend to create a climate within the work environment where they are able to assist employees to set and achieve individual, team and ultimately, organisational objectives.

According to Luthans et al. (2007), the type of behaviour displayed by top leadership can determine the boundaries of the climate in the organisation at subsequent levels. Luthans et al. (2007), claim that if leaders create a more positive climate that is supportive, it is likely that such leadership can reduce injury rates, stress, burnout, turnover, absenteeism, and disengagement. Luthans and Avolio (2003) argue that both a positive supportive context and psychological capital (PsyCap) are needed for human resources to achieve sustainable growth and performance. Positivity and authenticity from top leadership can have a contagion effect throughout the organisation and not only reduce stress and conflict but also build PsyCap efficacy (Avolio & Luthans, 2006; Luthans, Norman, & Hughes, 2006). PsyCap refers to a higher level construct which underlies the four dimensions of hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy (Luthans et al., 2008).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) advocate that leaders who demonstrate transformational behaviours, energise and hence empower their followers to act, by providing an exciting vision of the future. These authors add that transformational leaders with a vision can create a participative climate and more empowered condition in which organisational members assume the authority to take actions to enhance the vision. The concept of a leadership climate refers to the extent to which different organisational leaders behave in a similar fashion towards their subordinates (Bliese &

Halverson, 1998; Chen & Bliese, 2002; Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007). Walter and Bruch (2010) applied this concept to transformational leadership and suggested that a transformational leadership climate develops employees in the entire organisation. Through this, employees perceive their leaders to be demonstrating transformational leadership behaviours.

Schermerhorn, Gardner and Martin (1990) claim in their approach to organisational climate, that employees' performance is the product of their ability, the support they received to adequately perform their job, and the motivation to perform at high levels. These authors therefore stress that one key component of employees' performance is the amount of support they receive. Mercer and Bilson (1985) reported a positive relationship between supportive organisational climate and employee outcomes such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Similarly, Rogg, Schmidt, Shull and Schmitt (2001) found that supportive organisational climate was related to desired outcomes such as customer satisfaction. Although Rogg et al's. (2001) study was conducted at the organisational level, and not at the individual level of analysis, these results led to other studies which examined the impact of supportive organisational climate on other outcomes such as performance, job satisfaction, and commitment.

The variable supportive organisational climate seems to be related to the organisational sponsorship predictor of career success, as discussed earlier in Chapter 2. Organisational sponsorship is a predictor of career success by way of supervisor and co-worker support (Rogg et al. 2001). Employees may experience support from both their supervisor and co-workers, enhancing perceptions of a supportive organisational climate (Rogg et al., 2001).

A supportive organisational climate for the purpose of the current study is conceptualised as the overall amount of perceived support employees receive from their immediate peers, other departments, and their supervisor that they view as helping them to successfully complete their work duties (Rogg et al., 2001; Luthans et al., 2008).

It was argued earlier, that leaders play an important role in providing organisational resources to followers. It is plausible that one could reason that the provision of resources by transformational leaders' behaviours may enhance follower perceptions of a supportive organisational climate. On this basis, one could anticipate that a supportive organisational climate may theoretically be regarded as the result of transformational leadership and job resources in a conceptual model.

Moreover, a study by McMurray, Pirola-Merlo, Sarros and Islam (2010) found significant positive correlations between organisational climate (encompassing autonomy, trust, support, recognition, fairness, and supervisory encouragement of innovation) and the following dimensions of transformational leadership, namely articulating a vision (inspirational motivation) (r= .76), intellectual stimulation (r= .53), and providing individual support (individualised consideration) (r= .72).

Based on the existing theory and the reported set of empirical results, support is provided for the proposed relationship between transformational leadership and a supportive organisational climate.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 2: Transformational leadership is positively related to a supportive organisational climate.

In the following section, the relationship between a supportive organisational climate and career success is presented.

2.7.3.2 The relationship between a supportive organisational climate and career success.

According to Koene, Vogelaar and Soeters (2002), climate includes leader-member communication, that is, the provision of information by the manager; organisational efficiency; clarity of tasks; and how much readiness to innovate or to find new approaches is encouraged in a unit. These authors point out that a supportive climate will positively affect both employee satisfaction and company performance.

In their study, Li, Jiang, Yao and Li (2013) confirm the importance of creating a supportive environment for employees by providing both supervisor and co-worker support. Parker et al. (2004) maintain that organisations can assist in developing a supportive organisational environment by providing training to supervisors to develop their supportive qualities and by encouraging a coaching-oriented supervisory style.

Organisational climate seems to enhance an individual's career success through the facilitation of learning new knowledge that is important to perform well in the workplace (Nabi, 2000, 2001). The facilitation of learning seems to be based on the notion of an organisational learning climate (Parker et al., 2004). In addition, Baruch (2006) claims that in order to attract talented employees, organisations need to play a supportive role rather than a directive role in facilitating employees' career success. According to Maurer and Tarulli (1994) and Igbaria and Wormley (1992), employees' careers are likely to be enriched by supportive relationships with their supervisors.

It seems likely that managers can create a climate supportive of learning by (a) clearly communicating work objectives and responsibilities, as well as by (b) inspiring commitment to the organisation's mission and goals. It is therefore plausible that employees will perceive their managers as supportive, when they create a climate supportive of learning. Employees may enhance their skills if they take advantage of the opportunities created by managers (i.e. providing support for learning). This may ultimately lead to improving their chances of experiencing career success. In addition to the role played by managers and teams, employees may also facilitate a climate supportive of learning, by means of cooperation and collaboration. So when employees learn from fellow colleagues, it may enhance their skills that may ultimately lead to increased perceptions of career success (Parker et al., 2004., pp. 494-496).

It is likely that leaders who demonstrate transformational leadership behaviours and provide their subordinates with access to necessary job resources will be perceived by their subordinates as supportive. This may lead to perceptions of a supportive organisational climate. Trustworthy behaviour on the part of leadership is also core to

the development of perceptions of empowerment (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). Thus, displaying behavioural consistency, behavioural integrity and concern for followers, is imperative to the development of perceptions of psychological empowerment.

In the preceding section, a clearer understanding of how the organisational factors influence career success was established. The next section now focuses on how individual factors influence career success. One may hypothesise that the individual factors are at least partially a result of the organisational factors.

The first individual variable in the current study to be discussed is the variable psychological empowerment.

2.7.4 Psychological empowerment (Individual variable).

In this section various definitions of the variable of psychological empowerment as found in the literature are provided.

Previous research on the construct of psychological empowerment, concentrated on empowering management practices, including the delegation of decision-making from higher organisational levels to lower ones, and increasing access to information and resources for individuals at lower levels (Blau & Alba, 1982; Bowen & Lawler, 1992; Maneiro, 1986). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) advocated an alternative perspective on empowerment that distinguishes between situational attributes (e.g., management practices) and job incumbent cognitions about those attributes (e.g., psychological empowerment). Similarly, Conger and Kanungo (1988) argued that management practices are only one set of conditions and that these practices may possibly empower employees, but will not necessarily do so. The afore-mentioned authors defined empowerment as the motivational aspect of self-efficacy.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argued that empowerment is multifaceted and its essence cannot be captured by a single concept. They defined empowerment more broadly as intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an

individual's orientation to his or her work role, namely, meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. These four cognitions are briefly explained below:

- ***Meaning:*** Refers to the value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own ideals or standards (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Meaning refers to a fit between the requirements of a work role and beliefs, values, and behaviours (Brief & Nord, 1990; Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

- ***Competence:*** Refers to an individual's belief in his or her capabilities to perform activities with skill (Gist, 1987). Competence is similar to agency beliefs, personal mastery, or effort-performance expectancy (Bandura, 1989).

- ***Self-determination:*** Refers to an individual's sense of having choice in initiating and regulating actions (Deci et al., 1989). Self-determination reflects autonomy in the initiation and continuation of work behaviours and processes; for example, making decisions about work methods, pace, and effort (Bell & Staw, 1989; Spector, 1986).

- ***Impact:*** Refers to the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative, or operating outcomes at work (Ashforth, 1989). Impact is the opposite of learned helplessness (Martinko & Gardner, 1982). Impact is different from locus of control; whereas impact is influenced by the work context, internal locus of control is a global personality characteristic that endures across situations (Wolfe & Robertshaw, 1982).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argued that the above four dimensions combine additively. In similar vein, Spreitzer (1992) found that a more complex multiplicative formulation of the four dimensions had no better predictive validity than a simpler additive formulation. Spreitzer (1996) claimed that although the psychological empowerment construct has common roots with enrichment theory (Lawler, 1992), this multi-dimensional conceptualisation of empowerment extends notions of job enrichment in a number of ways.

Ford and Fottler (1995) add that psychological empowerment is based on the assumption that individuals can have a high level of "voice" in shaping and influencing organisational activities. These authors state that the impact dimension of empowerment extends the notion that individuals have some control over their own jobs to imply that they have some control over larger organisational matters. Next, they point out that the four dimensions of empowerment are viewed from the perspective of the individual and that the four cognitions complement the more objective, job-oriented characteristics and individual differences developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980). Ford and Fottler (1995) argue that from a cognitive perspective, it is possible for individuals to experience empowerment even if their "objective" job characteristics are not enriched, and vice versa. Moreover, these authors argue that empowerment is focussed at the level of the individual in relation to his or her work environment, but notions of job enrichment are frequently applied to both individual and team level of analysis (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

In addition, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) suggest that the organisational environment can have a powerful influence on the cognitions of empowerment. Mowday and Sutton (1993) suggest that an organisational environment can be viewed in terms of the constraints or opportunities it presents for individual cognitions and behaviour. According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990), the philosophy behind this approach is based in the belief that traditional organisational practices could render employees "powerless" to utilise their full productive and creative potential which result in passive mind-sets and ineffective or mediocre performance. These authors advocate that by changing or removing conditions that lead to feelings of powerlessness, it could be expected that employees would perform at their creative and productive best (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

In the following section, various antecedents of the variable of psychological empowerment as found in the literature are provided. This is followed by a discussion of the relationship between psychological empowerment and career success.

Psychological empowerment is influenced by the characteristics and behaviour of the organisation, peers and multiple other sources in the person and the environment

(Spreitzer, 1995). More specifically, this author distinguishes between personality variables (self-esteem and locus of control) and work context variables (information sharing and rewards) as antecedents to psychological empowerment. For the purposes of the current study, the definition of Thomas and Velthouse (1990) as referred to earlier in this section will be used.

2.7.4.1 Antecedents of psychological empowerment.

In the following section, the antecedents of psychological empowerment are discussed.

2.7.4.1.1 Self-esteem.

According to Brockner (1988), self-esteem, defined as a general feeling of self-worth, is proposed to be related to psychological empowerment. Bandura (1997) argues that individuals who hold themselves in high esteem are likely to extend their feelings of self-worth to a work-specific sense of competence. Gist and Mitchell (1992), indicate that through self-esteem, individuals see themselves as valued resources having talents worth contributing, and they are thus more likely to assume an active orientation with regard to their work and work units.

2.7.4.1.2 Locus of control.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) claim that locus of control (which is the personality trait most relevant to the impact dimension) will also be related to empowerment. According to these authors, individuals with internal locus of control regarding life in general are more likely to feel capable of shaping their work and work environments, and hence to feel empowered. These authors indicate that individuals with an internal locus of control are likely to see themselves as causal agents affecting their work environments, rather than as being controlled by forces external to the organisation. In contrast, “externals” are likely to see their behaviour as strongly influenced by a dominant system (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990).

2.7.4.1.3 Information.

Kanter (1989, p. 5) suggests that in order to be empowering, organisations must “make more information available to more people at more levels through more

devices". Lawler (1992) suggested that two specific types of information are vital for empowerment, namely (1) information about an organisation's mission and (2) information about performance. Kanter (1983) claimed, with regard to organisational mission, that they won't feel capable of taking initiative until people feel informed about the direction in which the organisation is headed. Kouzes and Postner (1998, p. 157) stated that "without information, you can be certain people will not extend themselves to take responsibility or vent their creative energies".

Information about mission is an important antecedent of empowerment because (1) it helps to create a sense of meaning and purpose (Conger & Kanungo, 1988) and (2) it enhances an individual's ability to make and influence decisions that are appropriately aligned with the organisation's goals and mission (Lawler, 1992). With regard to information about performance, people need to make and influence decisions to maintain and improve performance in future. Performance information is fundamental to reinforcing a sense of competence and believing that one is a valued part of an organisation.

2.7.4.1.4 Rewards.

An incentive system which rewards performance is considered to be a precondition critical for empowerment (Bowen and Lawler, 1992). To be empowering, a reward system must recognise individual contribution (Lawler, 1986). The latter author consequently claims that individual-performance-based rewards are argued to be important for empowerment by (1) recognising and reinforcing personal competencies and (2) providing individuals with incentives for participating in and affecting decision-making processes at work.

The predictor psychological empowerment seems likely to be related to human capital predictors of career success as discussed earlier in Chapter 2. Human capital theory (Ballout, 2007) suggests that individuals who invest the most in human capital attributes such as education, training, and experience (all related to competence) are expected to show higher levels of work performance. If individuals feel competent, they will experience higher levels of psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995).

Research clearly supports the notion that psychological empowerment is influenced by the characteristics and behaviour of the organisation (Spreitzer, 1995). Thus it is plausible that if transformational leaders provide important job resources, follower perceptions of a supportive organisational climate may be enhanced which may potentially lead to increasing their level of psychological empowerment. On this basis, one may reason that in a conceptual model, psychological empowerment may theoretically be regarded as the result of transformational leadership, job resources and a supportive organisational climate.

Moreover, Meyerson and Kline (2008) reported non-significant correlations between psychological empowerment and dimensions of transformational leadership, namely: idealised influence (r= .07), inspirational motivation (r= .03), intellectual stimulation (r= -.02), and individualised consideration (r= -.02). Another study though, reported a significant positive correlation (r= .33) between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment (Pieterse, Van Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010). In similar vein, Ismail, Mohamed, Sulaiman, Mohamed and Yusuf (2011) found a significant positive correlation (r= .39) between transformational leadership and empowerment. Al-Swidi et al. (2012) also reported a significant relationship (r= .43) between transformational leadership and empowerment. A study by Krishnan (2012) reported significant positive correlations between empowerment and the dimensions of transformational leadership, namely: idealised influence (r= .26); inspirational motivation (r= .24), intellectual stimulation (r= .18), and individualised consideration (r= .23).

In addition to theoretical support, the five studies referred to above provide empirical support for the anticipated relationship between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 3: Transformational leadership is positively related to psychological empowerment.

Although there do not seem to be many studies that specifically investigated the relationship between past leadership and psychological empowerment, based on a similar theoretical notion to the previous argument, one may anticipate that past leadership behaviours may enhance followers levels of psychological empowerment. On this basis, one may reason that in a conceptual model, psychological empowerment may theoretically be regarded as a result of past leadership. Moreover, a study by Laschinger, Finegan and Wilk (2009) reported a significant positive correlation (r= .36) between leadership and psychological empowerment**.** This study indicates a positive relationship between past leadership and psychological empowerment.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 4: Past leadership is positively related to psychological empowerment.

It has been argued in the previous section that if transformational leaders provide important job resources, one could anticipate that follower perceptions of a supportive organisational climate may be enhanced. More specifically social support (a job resource) (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005) may impact a supportive organisational climate (Rogg et al., 2001). Social support at work (Elo, Dallner, Gamberale, Hottinen, Knardahl, Lindström, 2001), is another concept related to job resources. Social support at work relates to support received from one's immediate supervisor and co-workers. A study by Hakanen and Lindbohm (2008) reported a significant positive correlation (r= .59) between social support at work (an element of job resources) and organisational climate. The above study indicates a positive relationship between job resources and supportive organisational climate. On this basis, one may anticipate that in a conceptual model, supportive organisational climate may theoretically be regarded as a result of transformational leadership and job resources.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 5: Job resources are positively related to a supportive organisational climate.

It has been reasoned in the previous section that followers' perceptions of psychological empowerment may be enhanced by the provision of important job resources by transformational leaders. Supporting this reasoning, Siegall and Gardner (2000) reported significant positive correlations between communication with supervisor (which is an element of job resources), and the following three dimensions of psychological empowerment, namely meaning, (r= .29) self-determination, (r= .21) and impact (r= .29). In contrast, the correlation with competence was not significant (r= .13). Siegall and Gardner (2000) further reported significant positive bivariate correlations between team work (which is an element of job resources) and the following two dimensions of psychological empowerment, namely: meaning (r= .39) and impact (r= .24). In addition, Bordin, Bartram and Casimir (2007) reported significant positive bivariate correlations between empowerment and the following elements of job resources, namely, access to information about the organisation's mission (r= .37), access to information about performance (r= .46), supervisory social support (r= .38), and participation (r= .43).

Complemented by theory, the above studies seem to be in agreement that a positive relationship exists between job resources and psychological empowerment. On this basis, one may anticipate that in conceptual model, psychological empowerment may theoretically be regarded as a result of transformational leadership, job resources and supportive organisational climate.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 6: Job resources are positively related to psychological empowerment.

Moreover, the cumulative advantage/disadvantage theory of DiPrete and Eirich (2006) may provide a possible conceptual basis for explaining the anticipated relationship between past job resources and psychological empowerment. According to the

cumulative advantage/disadvantage theory, the cumulative disadvantage process is capable of amplifying small differences over the course of time and subsequently makes it difficult for an individual who is behind in resource development at a point in time to catch up (DiPrete & Eirich, 2006). Individuals who have had access to more resources in the past, are likely to be at an advantage in their current and future positions, because they had more opportunities to access and develop these resources.

The above theory seems to provide a plausible rationale for the proposed relationship between past job resources and psychological empowerment. On this basis, one may anticipate that in a conceptual model, psychological empowerment could be regarded as a result of past job resources.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 7: Past job resources are positively related to psychological empowerment.

On the basis of theory, one could anticipate that follower perceptions of psychological empowerment may be increased by the establishment of a supportive organisational climate. Supporting this notion, a study by Mok and Au-Yeung (2002) reported significant positive bivariate correlations ranging from (r= .34) and (r= .51) between organisational climate factors and psychological empowerment. All the factors in their organisational climate scale, namely, (leadership, working harmony, challenge, recognition, teamwork, and decision-making) were moderately to highly related to empowerment. In a second study, Hassanein, Ibrahim, Mosen and El- Salam (2008) reported significant positive correlations between organisational climate and the following dimensions of empowerment, namely meaning (r= .19), competence (r= .33), self-determination (r= .73). The two studies referred to above, provide empirical support for the anticipated relationship between supportive organisational climate and psychological empowerment. On this basis, one may theorise that in a conceptual model, psychological empowerment may be viewed theoretically as result of a supportive organisational climate.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 8: Supportive organisational climate is positively related to psychological empowerment.

In the following section, the relationship between psychological empowerment and career success is discussed.

2.7.4.2 The relationship between psychological empowerment and career success.

Seibert et al. (2001, p. 225) state that "those who feel greater psychological empowerment with respect to their careers should be more satisfied with their career progress". It seems plausible that those employees who progress in their careers, view themselves as more successful. In addition, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) claim a major premise of empowerment theory is that empowered individuals should perform better than those who are relatively less empowered. Spreitzer (1995) argues that empowered employees are likely to be seen as successful because they proactively execute their job responsibilities. This is because they see themselves as competent and able to influence their jobs and work environments in meaningful ways.

In addition, Spreitzer (1996) found that so-called high-involvement systems provide an environment in which employees can engage in a more active rather than passive role. This author established that such organisational climates, which are characterised by minimal role ambiguity, strong socio-political support, access to information, and participative management practices, were found to be associated with the emergence of empowered employees. Evered and Selman (1989) claim that in participative climates, the acknowledgement and liberation of employees are valued. Bowen and Lawler (1992) add that such participative climates recognise the vital significance of human capital to the success of the organisation. It seems likely that a participative climate may facilitate cognitions of psychological empowerment, which may ultimately lead to perceptions of career success.

Moreover, it is plausible that the support provided by leaders in terms of work-related communication and feedback about performance, may impact cognitions of competence (a dimension of psychological empowerment) and personal mastery (Bandura, 1989). One possible consequence of psychological empowerment is an increase in employees' self-efficacy beliefs. If an employee receives positive feedback for the work he or she does within the organisation from others (such as a supervisor), this would likely result in greater feelings of psychological capital (Mathe & Scott-Halsell, 2012).

In the preceding section, the discussion focused on how the individual factor of psychological empowerment influences career success. In the next section, the second and final individual variable, PsyCap, to be investigated in the current study will be discussed. One may hypothesise that a possible consequence of psychological empowerment is an increase in employees' levels of PsyCap. Luthans et al. (2007) claim that a positive psychological state can invigorate the perceptions of what employees can achieve. In addition to the benefit that PsyCap holds for the individual, Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa and Li (2005) argue that developing PsyCap also provides benefits for the organisation, given that it is difficult for rivals to replicate, thus leveraging competitive advantage. Hence, the decision was taken to include the variable of PsyCap in the current study.

2.7.5 Psychological capital (PsyCap) (Individual variable).

Literature reveals that there are two broad resource theories that can be used to explain PsyCap. These two are individual level resources and multi-component resource theories. Luthans et al. (2007) draw from psychological resource theories (e.g. Hobfoll, 2002) to provide further support for PysCap as a core construct. These theories emphasise the necessity of treating individual resources (in this case, the POB capacities) as manifestations of an underlying core construct or an integrated resource set (in this case, PsyCap) rather than in isolation. Key resource theories (e.g., Thoits, 1994) have identified individual-level resources such as self-efficacy, optimism, resiliency, and degree of goal pursuit (an integral component of hope) as essential foundational resources for managing and adapting other resources to achieve favourable outcomes.

In a similar vein, multi-component resource theories support resource synergies, in which the whole is greater than the sum of the constituent parts. Examples of such theories include the theory of sense of coherence (Antonovsky, 1979), which is conceptually similar to PsyCap optimism, as well as the well-known construct of hardiness (Kobasa, 1979), which in many ways parallels PsyCap resiliency (Hobfoll, 2002). Hence, resource theory could be used to support theory-building that synergies may exist both within the components of individual PsyCap capacities, as well as between the capacities that constitute PsyCap as a core construct.

It is through the discriminant validity associated with each of the individual PsyCap capacities (e.g. Bryant & Cvengros, 2004; Luthans et al., 2006; Magletta & Oliver, 1999) that each capacity adds unique variance and becomes additive to the overall PsyCap. According to Sarason, Sarason, Shearin and Pierce (1987), PsyCap can include group-level meta-constructs, such as social support and the network of relationships, that are part of "who you are," particularly in times of psychological stress. Avolio and Luthans (2006) argue that PsyCap goes beyond what has generally been ignored in human and social capital - especially the developmental aspect of PsyCap of "what you are becoming". These authors claim that PsyCap recognises moving (developing) from the actual self (human, social, and psychological capital) to the possible self. It is evident that theory and research seem to support an underlying PsyCap core construct to which the individual capacities contribute.

Luthans et al's. (2007, p. 3) definition of PsyCap will be used for the purposes of the current study.

> *an individual's positive psychological state of development that is characterized by (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resiliency) to attain success.*

In the following section the four sub-dimensions (i.e. PsyCap optimism, PsyCap self-efficacy, PsyCap resilience, and PsyCap hope) of the higher-level PsyCap construct are discussed.

2.7.5.1 PsyCap optimism.

According to Luthans et al. (2007), PsyCap optimism is a responsible and adaptive form of optimism which learns from both positive and negative events, as well as their causes and consequences, before taking credit for successes or distancing and externalising failures. Luthans et al. (2007) suggest that employees with high PsyCap optimism are also able to express their gratitude and appreciation to relevant others and to factors that might have contributed to their success. These authors add that employees are able to capitalise on the opportunities that the situation may present them with, develop their skills and abilities and thus improve their chances of success in the future. Moreover, an optimistic explanatory style would help employees in taking charge and being in control of their own destiny. Importantly, this optimistic processing of events is likely to cause their positive outlook to actually come true. PsyCap optimism can therefore lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy (Peterson & Chang, 2002) and be both motivated and motivating (Peterson, 2000) to achieving long-term success.

PsyCap optimism links to the concept of "career resiliency" (Waterman et al., 1994). According to Luthans et al. (2007), organisations seriously need career-resilient employees who realise that they are responsible for their own careers, for reinventing themselves to make their skills marketable (i.e., employable) and useful for their current and future employers. Career resiliency combines flexibility and adaptability with proactive, self-initiated development and continuous learning. Employees' capacity to work independently is increasingly becoming necessary, not only for their career management, but also for their effective performance in most jobs (Luthans et al., 2007). Luthans et al. (2007) claim that the utility of this type of PsyCap optimism is very relevant in the workplace.

Luthans et al. (2007, p. 93), define PsyCap optimism in line with the positive psychology definition, as an "attributional, explanatory style, but does not preclude its emotional dimensions, its future orientation, or its motivational benefits".

2.7.5.2 PsyCap efficacy.

The notion of PsyCap efficacy in the current study, has its roots in Bandura's (1986, 1997, 2001) social cognitive theory, and is built on five cognitive processes considered vital constituents of PsyCap efficacy (1) symbolising, (2) forethought, (3) observation, (4) self-regulation, and (5) self-reflection.

The five cognitive processes are briefly described below:

- ***Symbolising*:** Creating a mental image/model which can serve as a guide for future actions;
- ***Forethought:*** Through forethought, actions are initiated and guided in an anticipatory manner;
- ***Observational (or modelling) cognitive processing*:** The observational component in this process highlights the importance of one's manager displaying certain behaviours and actions that will "teach" followers to be able to achieve positive results themselves;
- ***Self-regulatory processing*:** For example, an employee sets specific goals and standards for her/his performance and assesses their standing in relation to the self-set standards. Self-regulation refers to the part where thinking and behaviour actually change, and it is probably highly impacted by the receptivity of the context of change; and,
- ***Self-reflective processing:*** Learning is extracted from previous experiences.

PysCap efficacy can be defined as "one's conviction (or confidence) about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context" (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998b, p. 66).

2.7.5.3 PsyCap resiliency.

Luthans et al. (2007, p. 124) view PsyCap resiliency as "a dynamic, malleable, developable psychological capacity or strength. Wildavsky (1988, p. 77) defines resilience as "the capacity to cope with unanticipated dangers after they have become manifest, learning to bounce back". This author argues that to be resilient is to be vitally prepared for adversity, which requires "improvement in overall capability, that is, a generalised capacity to investigate, to learn, and to act, without knowing in advance what one will be called to act upon" (Wildavsky, 1988, p. 70).

According to Bonanno (2004), PsyCap resiliency should not only be viewed as a neutralising agent for difficult times. These authors add that viewing resiliency as proactive, rather than reactive, may lead to sustainable positive gains. Reivich and Shatte (2002) support the proactive nature of resiliency in describing it as the capacity to overcome, steer through, bounce back, and reach out to pursue new knowledge and experiences, deeper relationships with others, and finding meaning in life.

PsyCap resilience is defined as "the capacity to rebound back from adversity, conflict, failure, or even positive events, progress, and even increased responsibility (Luthans, 2002a, p. 702).

2.7.5.4 PsyCap hope.

Luthans (2002b) use the definition rooted in positive psychology for positive organisational behaviour and a positive approach to leadership (PAL) (Luthans, 2002a), in which hope consists of both willpower (agency) and waypower (alternate pathways). Pathways reflect a person's perceived capacity to produce cognitive routes to desired goals (Snyder, 1994b). Given that some of the plans may not succeed, hopeful persons produce many such plans in order to circumvent possible obstacles (Snyder, 1994b). Agency consists of the individuals' thoughts regarding their ability to initiate and continue movement on pathways toward goal achievement. It is through mobilising agency thoughts that a person is motivated to initiate and sustain movement along pathways toward desired ends (Snyder, 1994b). According to Snyder (2000), the two will and way dimensions are iterative, additive, and positively

related, but are still conceptually distinct constructs. In addition, the afore-mentioned author points out that it not sufficient in terms of this definition of hope to have just agency or pathways; both must be present.

PsyCap hope is defined as "a positive motivational state that is derived from an interactively sense of successful (1) agency (goal-directed determination) and pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991, p. 287).

2.7.6 Foundations of the PsyCap dimensions.

In the following section, the foundations of the PsyCap dimensions are presented. The PsyCap dimensions are rooted in the more general constructs of optimism, self-efficacy, resilience, and hope.

2.7.6.1 Optimism.

In this section, various approaches to optimism as found in the literature are presented.

2.7.6.1.1 Approaches to optimism.

According to Seligman (1990) optimism as an explanatory style, attributes positive events to personal, permanent and pervasive causes and interprets negative events in terms of external, temporary, and situation specific factors. In contrast, an individual with a pessimistic explanatory style, interprets positive events with external, temporary, and situation-specific attributes, and explain negative events in terms of personal, permanent, and pervasive causes.

Another approach to optimism relies on the assumption that people's expectancies for the future derive from their view of the causes of events in the past (Peterson & Seligman, 1984; Seligman, 1991). According to this approach (Peterson & Seligman, 1984; Seligman, 1991), if explanations for past failures focus on causes that are stable, the person's expectancy for the future in the same domain will be for bad outcomes, because the cause is seen as relatively permanent and thus likely to remain in force. Wrosch and Scheier (2003) suggest that in contrast to the attributional

approach to optimism, dispositional optimism does not differentiate the basis of expectation.

Dispositional optimism can be defined as a person's positive outlook towards life events (Ebert, Tucker, & Roth, 2002; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994). According to these authors, optimists believe that good outcomes will occur in life and can therefore appraise stressful events more positively and mobilise their resources to take direct action in response to a stressor.

2.7.6.2 Self-efficacy.

In the following section, the antecedents of self-efficacy as found in the literature are presented.

2.7.6.2.1 Antecedents of self-efficacy.

Bandura (1997) claims the development of self-efficacy is influenced primarily by two interacting factors. Firstly, it is influenced by the development of the capacity for symbolic thought, particularly the capacity for self-observation and self-reflection. Secondly, the development of efficacy beliefs is influenced by the responsiveness of environments, more especially social environments. Environments which are responsive to an individual's behaviour and actions assist in developing efficacy beliefs, whereas non-responsive environments impede this development.

According to Bandura (1997) efficacy beliefs develop throughout the life-span from five main sources:

Performance experiences

- One's own attempts to control the environment are the most powerful source of self-efficacy information. Successful attempts at control that one attributes to one's own efforts will strengthen self-efficacy for that behaviour, while perceptions of failure at attempts to control, usually diminish self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). In line with Bandura (1997), Stajkovic and Luthans (1998a) point out that research shows that succeeding in a challenging task, termed as

an "enactive mastery experience" provides the strongest information for changing efficacy beliefs.

Vicarious experiences

- According to Bandura (1997), one's self-efficacy beliefs are influenced by one's observations of the behaviour of others and the consequences of those behaviours. Bandura (1997) points out that vicarious experiences seem to generally have weaker effects on self-efficacy expectancy that performance experiences.

Imaginal experiences

- According to Williams (1995), one can influence self-efficacy beliefs by imagining oneself or others behaving effectively or ineffectively in hypothetical situations. This author suggests that such images may be derived from actual or vicarious experiences with situations similar to the one anticipated, or they may be induced by verbal persuasion.

Verbal persuasion

- Efficacy beliefs are influenced by what others say to one, regarding what they believe one can or cannot do (e.g., Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Snyder & Lopez, 2002). The power of verbal persuasion as a source of self-efficacy will be influenced by the trustworthiness and expertness of the source (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Snyder & Lopez, 2002).

Physiological and emotional states

- Physiological and emotional states influence self-efficacy when one learns to associate poor performance or perceived failure with aversive physiological arousal and success with pleasant feeling states (e.g., Bandura, 1986, 1997). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy makes a difference in how people act, think and feel. This author suggests that individual's self-efficacy levels can either enhance or impede motivation.

2.7.6.3 Resilience.

In the following section, definitions and antecedents of resilience as found in the literature are presented.

2.7.6.3.1 Antecedents of resilience.

According to Masten and Reed (2002) predominant themes that arise from the body of research suggest that resilience is founded on at least two building blocks, namely adequate resources and an active mastery motivation system. First, resilience is more likely when individuals have access to a sufficient amount of quality resources (i.e. human, social, emotional and material capital) so that they can develop competence. Second, resilience is more likely when an individual's mastery motivation system is mobilised, that is when individuals have experiences that allow them to encounter success and build self-efficacy and that motivate them to succeed in their future endeavours.

According to Wruck and Jensen (1994), in organisational settings, resilience is engendered when individuals, who are most likely to have relevant and specific knowledge necessary to make a decision and resolve a problem, are given decision-making authority. In addition, these authors claim resilience hinges on individual training, experience and the development of specialised knowledge.

According to Garmezy (1991, p. 459), to be resilient does not ensure success in every instance, but rather it implies a "capacity for recovery or maintained adaptive behaviour that may follow initial retreat or incapacity upon experiencing a stressful event". The afore-mentioned author suggests that effective action reinforces a sense of competence and efficacy and notes that resilience is an outcome of the self-reinforcing nature of this cycle.

In addition, Masten's (2001; Masten & Reed, 2002) research supports that resilience can be developed through asset-focused, and process-focused strategies, that are relevant and applicable to the workplace. Bonanno (2004) also supports that the state-like resilience can be developed through training interventions. Moreover, resilience is measurable (e.g., Blocke & Kremen, 1996; Wagnild & Young, 1993) and

has been shown to be applicable and related to performance in the workplace (Coutu, 2002; Harland, Harrison, Jones, & Reiter-Palmaon, 2005; Luthans et al. 2005; Luthans, Vogelgesang, & Lester, 2006; Waite & Richardsen, 2004; Worline, Dutton, Frost, Kanov, Lilius, & Maitlis, 2002; Zunz, 1998).

2.7.6.4 Hope.

In the following section, definitions and the antecedents of hope as found in the literature are presented.

2.7.6.4.1 Antecedents of hope.

According to Snyder (1995a), conceptually, the hope construct derives its uniqueness from equal, additive, and iterative contributions of its agency and pathways components. Although the agency or willpower component of hope is shared with other positive psychological capacities such as optimism, the pathways or waypower component is distinctive of hope. This author suggests that the hope process allows blockages or problems to be perceived as challenges and learning opportunities.

Youssef and Luthans (2007) claim several factors can promote the organisational culture needed for hope development and sustainability. Strategic initiatives emphasising long-term goal-setting, coordination, integration, and contingency planning can create an organisational environment where agency and pathways thinking can thrive. Clearly, the afore-mentioned authors are alluding to organisational climate and culture that stimulate and reinforce such thinking and behaviour.

Youssef and Luthans (2007) claim that hopeful organisations are proactive in seeking and creating opportunities for members, and in controlling the environment to facilitate the achievement of their goals. These authors suggest that open and transparent flows of communication through flat, organic structures, participative decision-making, empowerment, and other flexible, high-engagement techniques, can provide a culture of hope that encourages its members to take initiatives, seek responsibility, accept accountability, and expect to be treated fairly when doing so.

In a survey by Adams, Snyder, Rand, King, Sigman and Pulvers (2002), it was found that organisations in which respondents reported higher levels of hope, tended to be more successful than those with lower levels of hope.

2.7.7 State-like nature of PsyCap.

Due to the state-like nature of PsyCap, it is possible to develop the above dimensions of PsyCap. Psychological capital (PsyCap) may be important to career success in that both theory-building and prior research on hope, resilience, optimism, and efficacy supports that they are developable (Luthans et al., 2007). For example, Bandura (1997, 2000) has demonstrated strategies to increase self-efficacy. Snyder (2000) provides evidence that hope is developable. Carver and Scheier (2002) more recently discussed strategies to develop optimism, and, Shifren and Hooker (1995) have demonstrated its situational measurement.

Training interventions have proven successful in supporting and building individuals' hope (Snyder, 2000). Workplace hope training interventions are beginning to appear (Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006). Some of the initial results from these efforts focusing on goal-design, pathways generation, and overcoming obstacles seem to be encouraging and could assist HR Managers in influencing employees' perceptions of challenges versus hindrances (Luthans et al. 2006; Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008).

Masten and Reed (2002) likewise discuss successful strategies for resilience-based developmental interventions, and Wagnild and Young (1993) have developed a state-like measure of it. Each of these contributions in the positive psychology literature have supported that these four constructs can be developed. In addition, there is preliminary evidence that when these four constructs are combined into a higher-order construct (PsyCap), it can be considered state-like and hence may be developable (Luthans et al., 2006).

2.7.8 Organisational climate and PsyCap.

Luthans et al. (2008) propose that perceptions of a supportive climate may provide the desired conditions necessary for psychological capital (PysCap) to flourish, which

may ultimately lead to positive perceptions of career success. These authors suggest when employees feel supported they are more likely to use the pathway generation characteristic of hope in order to experiment with new methods to achieve tasks. Moreover, given that resiliency is defined in terms of assets and resources, it is likely that a supportive climate will act as contextual resources for individuals to quickly "bounce back" after setbacks. A further example of how a supportive climate may contribute to individual levels of psychological capital (PsyCap) can be explained in terms of optimistic attributions in which employees are encouraged to be optimistic about their attributions.

The predictor psychological capital seems likely to be related to the individual difference predictors of career success as discussed earlier in Chapter 2. It is important to note that PsyCap and it's associated sub-constructs is state-like and open to development (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007) and therefore not a trait.

Moreover, if an employee receives positive feedback for the work he or she does within the organisation from others (such as a supervisor), this would likely result in greater feelings of psychological capital (Mathe & Scott-Halsell, 2012, p. 357). It is therefore likely that employees will perceive themselves as competent as a result of receiving confirmation for the work that they do. Employees who receive positive feedback about their performance on the job are likely to express higher self-efficacy beliefs (a dimension of psychological capital) (Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002, p. 281). A study by Mathe & Scott-Halsell (2012) reported a significant positive correlation (r= .76) between psychological empowerment and psychological capital. The afore-mentioned study provides empirical support for the anticipated relationship between psychological empowerment and psychological capital. On this basis, one may reason that in a conceptual model, psychological capital may theoretically be the result of psychological empowerment.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 9: Psychological empowerment is positively related to psychological capital.

In the following section the importance of psychological capital in career success is discussed.

2.7.8.1 The relationship between psychological capital (PsyCap) and career success.

According to Luthans et al. (2007), in order to negotiate the modern career environment, there is a mounting need for individuals to build psychological capacities such as efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism. Day et al. (2004) reported positive correlations between municipal employees' career self-efficacy, current salary, and subjective career success. In addition, Kim, Mone and Kim (2008) reported that Korean employees' self-efficacy correlated positively with salary.

Two longitudinal studies have found support for the influence of self-efficacy on job satisfaction or perceived career success (Higgins et al., 2008; Saks, 1995). Moreover, research has shown PsyCap to be positively related to individuals' work performance (Avey et al., 2011). Peterson, Walumbwa, Byron and Myrowitz (2009) argue the positive psychological capacities share self-directed motivating mechanisms and processes and that they impact individuals work attitudes and behaviour.

Recent career research has shown self-efficacy and hope to be associated with career development skills and outcomes (Sung et al., 2013), and expected career performance and satisfaction (Conklin et al., 2012). A study by Valcour and Ladge (2008) reported a significant correlation (r= .19) between self-efficacy (a dimension of psychological capital) and subjective career success. A second study by Abele and Spurk (2009) found a significant positive correlation (r= .19) between occupational self-efficacy (self-efficacy being a dimension of psychological capital) and career satisfaction (a dimension of subjective career success).

The two studies discussed above may provide the empirical basis for the proposed relationship between psychological capital and subjective career success. On this

basis, one may reason that in a conceptual model, subjective career success may theoretically be the result of psychological capital.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 10: Psychological capital is positively related to subjective career success.

In the following section the interrelationship between objective and subjective career success will be discussed.

2.8 Interrelationship between Objective and Subjective Career Success

Various possibilities seem to exist regarding the interrelationship between objective and subjective career success. Several authors (Judge et al., 1995; Ng et al., 2005) stress that objective career success could be the foundation of subjective success. Similarly, Nicholson and De Waal-Andrews (2005) view subjective career success as a by-product of objective career success. Gattiker and Larwood (1998) support the notion that objective success influences subjective success and revealed in their studies that income and promotions predict job and career attitudes. A study by Wayne et al. (1999) found that income, status, and promotions predict career satisfaction. Raabe, Frese and Behr (2007) found that income predicts changes in career satisfaction in 12 month time intervals and (Schneer & Reitman, 1997) in a 6 year period. In addition, a study by Turban and Dougherty (1994) found that income and promotions are associated with perceived career success, which included other-referent comparison judgments. In a similar vein, Kirchmeyer (1995) reported positive correlations of income and status with other-referent subjective success.

Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008) reported that subjective experiences of career success lead to more objective success. The latter authors claim that when an individual experiences subjective career success it may lead to a sense of greater self-confidence, which may enhance their motivation and could lead to more objective success.

In contrast, Hughes (1937), Arthur and Rousseau (1996), and Van Maanen (1977) maintain that objective and subjective career success are interdependent. Hall (2002) agrees with the afore-mentioned authors, and proposes a cyclical model, in which career success bolsters an individual's level of self-esteem, and increases the level of involvement in the particular area of career work. This then in turn impacts objective career success positively, which creates a success cycle linking objective and subjective career success outcomes. Arthur et al. (2005), and Hall and Chandler (2005) suggest an alternative "interdependent perspective" that when people experience objective reality, they create understandings and evaluations about career success. These individuals then act on these understandings and evaluations. In addition, these authors claim that certain outcomes are attained based on their actions, which then lead to modified evaluations and behaviours.

The current study takes cognisance of Arthur et al's. (2005, p. 197) call to researchers with respect to "how career success unfolds in a dynamic and uncertain world"… appealing for research designs with adequate measures of both objective and subjective success, including designs which can highlight "the two-way, time-dependent interaction between the two sides of career success".

It is thus important to include both objective and subjective components of career success in the current study, given that career success can be measured in terms of both extrinsic (tangible) and intrinsic (affective and less tangible) measures (Allen, Eby, Poteel, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Greenhaus et al., 1990; Ng et al., 2005); Turban & Dougherty, 1994).

In terms of attribution theory (Johns, 1999), people have the tendency to attribute successes to internal causes and failures to external factors. Therefore, one's objective career success is likely to engender positive self-perceptions, which in turn could lead to greater satisfaction with one's career (Johns, 1999). Moreover, according to social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), people have the tendency to compare themselves with others. Because wealth and social standing are valued in society, tangible career achievements may lead to feelings of greater career

satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005). Hence, objective career success could be the basis for the subjective evaluation of success (Abele & Spurk, 2009).

A study by Seibert et al. (2001) found significant positive correlations between career satisfaction (a dimension of subjective career success) and the following elements of objective career success: namely, salary progression (r= .18) and promotions (r= .15). Another study by Valcour and Ladge (2008) reported a significant correlation (r= .26) between income (indicator of objective career success) and subjective career success. Abele and Spurk (2009) found a significant correlation (r= .16) between self-referent subjective career success and objective success. Finally, Tharmaseelan, Inkson and Carr (2010) found a significant positive correlation (r= .56) between objective career success and subjective career success.

These studies are all in agreement that a relationship exists between objective career success (current) and subjective career success. Complemented by theory, these studies provide empirical support for the anticipated relationship between objective career success (current) and subjective career success. On this basis, one may anticipate that in a conceptual model, subjective career success may theoretically be regarded as a result of objective career success.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 11: Objective career success (current) is positively related to subjective career success.

Moreover, the role that past objective success plays in an individual's current subjective experience of their career seems to be generally ignored in literature. When careers are viewed as a journey of transitions over one's working life (Hall, 1976, 1996; Sullivan, 1999; Super, 1980), there is an implicit understanding that what has already occurred will affect current and future career success (Feldman et al., 2007; Super, 1980). According to Stumpf and Tymon (2012), past career mobility, promotions and salary change – particularly since these actions are often visible to others and appear to be objective indices of success- set the stage for future

opportunities and affect the way the professionals perceive themselves and are perceived by others.

A study by Stumpf and Tymon (2012) found significant positive correlations between satisfaction with career (a dimension of subjective career success) and the following two elements of past objective career success, namely promotions (r= .30) and salary change (r= .17).

Supported by theory, the above study suggests that a relationship exists between objective career success (past) and subjective career success. On this basis, one may anticipate in a conceptual model, subjective career success may theoretically be regarded as a result of past objective career success.

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 12: Objective career success (past) is positively related to subjective career success.

In the previous section, propositions 1-12 that will guide the current study in answering the two research questions were presented. Empirical and theoretical support for these propositions was discussed. Proposition 13 will be presented in Chapter 3.

The figure (Figure 2.1) below depicts the proposed relationships to be investigated by the current study as suggested by each of the propositions. It therefore becomes possible to understand the dynamic interaction between the variables and subjective career success.

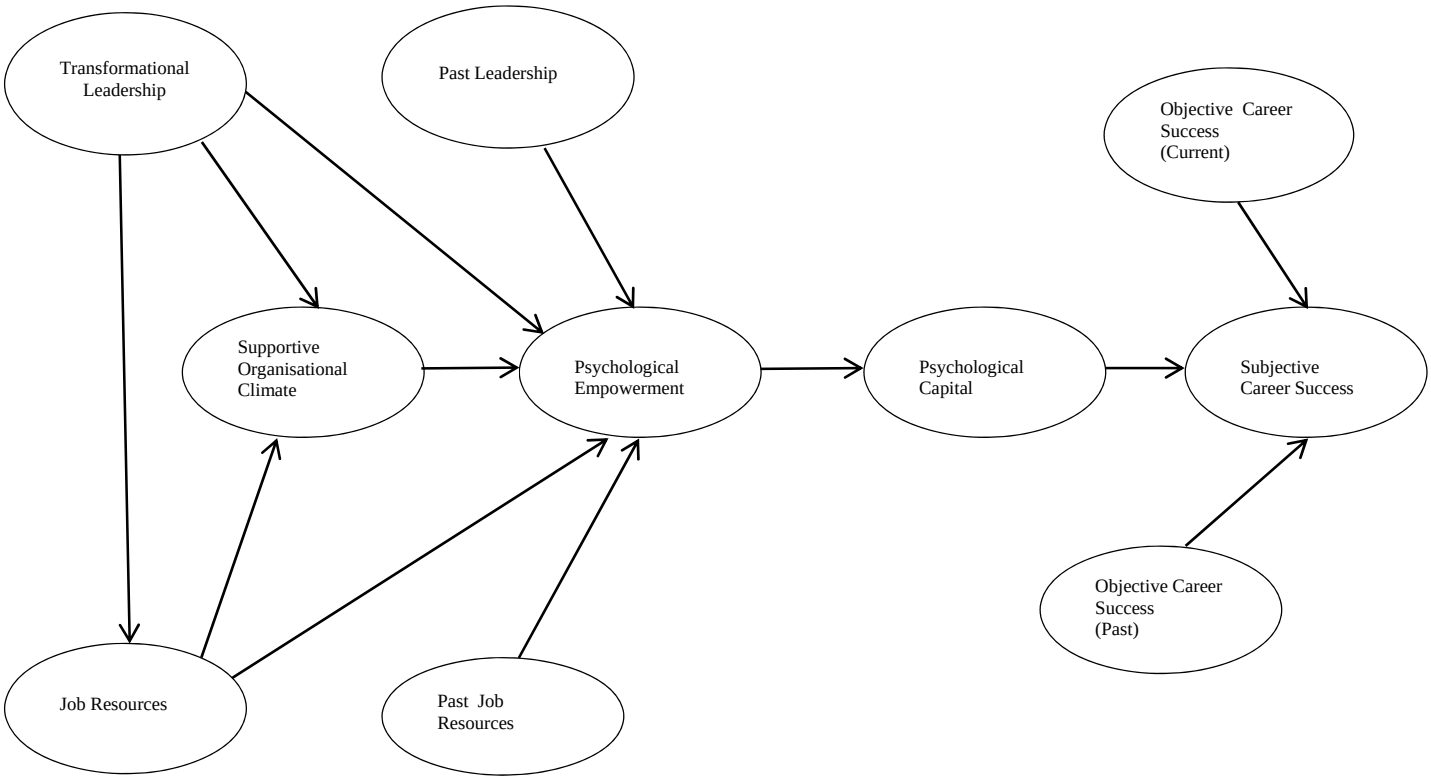

***Figure 2.1*. Conceptual model: Factors influencing subjective career success**

2.9 Summary

The preceding chapter provided an overview of the contemporary career theories that will guide the study. Emphasis was placed on both the boundaryless and protean careers. On the basis of previous research, this chapter also provided a broad overview of previous predictors of career success. Due to the uniqueness of the current study, similar and other predictors were discussed. The chapter included a discussion of the direct relationship between the chosen predictors and career success and was supplemented by empirical and theoretical evidence justifying the proposed relationships in the proposed theoretical model. The research methodology utilised in the current study is discussed in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the methodology used in the current study. Following a mixed-methods exploratory sequential design, the current study is based on three phases: Phase 1 (Qualitative Strand), Phase 2 (Quantitative Strand/Instrument Development/Pilot Phase), and Phase 3 (Quantitative Strand/Main Study). Each of these three phases will be discussed in terms of the (1) research design, (2) sample design and procedure, (3) data collection technique, and (4) data analysis technique.

3.2 Overview of the Exploratory Sequential Design

To provide an answer to the research initiating question (as highlighted in Chapter 1), the following two specific research questions were developed:

1. What is the relationship between subjective career success (dependent variable) and organisational variables, such as leadership characteristics and behaviours, organisational characteristics, such as job resources and organisational climate, and psychological characteristics and past job experiences?

2. Can a conceptual model be built, depicting the combined influence of organisational variables, such as leadership characteristics and behaviours, organisational characteristics, such as job resources and organisational climate, and psychological characteristics and past job experiences on subjective career success?

The research questions are informed by the literature review. To systematically provide answers to these two research questions, an appropriate research design is required.

The exploratory sequential design is a two-phase sequential design in which the researcher starts by qualitatively exploring the topic, before proceeding to a second, quantitative phase. The emphasis on exploration is encompassed in the name of the research design. In many applications of this design, the researcher develops an

instrument as an intermediate step between the phases that build on the qualitative results and is used in the quantitative data collection to follow (Creswell, Fetters, & Ivankova, 2004).

However, for the purposes of the current study, no instrument will be developed. The initial qualitative phase plays a secondary role. The purpose of the qualitative phase in the current study is merely the verification of the content validity of the instruments with the possibility of adapting them.

3.2.1 Philosophical assumptions behind exploratory design.

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), given that the exploratory design starts qualitatively, the research problem and purpose often require the qualitative strand to have a bigger priority within the design. However in the current study, emphasis is placed on the quantitative strand that follows the qualitative strand. In general during the first phase of a study, researchers work from constructivist principles to appreciate various perspectives and obtain an in-depth understanding of the topic prior to proceeding to the next quantitative phase.

3.2.2 The purpose of the exploratory design.

The purpose of the chosen research design is to ensure that accurate empirical evidence is obtained that can be interpreted to determine whether the thirteen research propositions defined for this study can be confidently accepted or rejected. In order to test the propositions, a mixed-methods design (with the emphasis on the quantitative research approach) will be used. The primary purpose of the exploratory design is to make inferences from qualitative findings, based on the responses of a few individuals from the first phase, to a larger sample gathered during the second phase. The intent of the two-phase exploratory design is that the results of the first qualitative phase can help develop or inform the second quantitative phase (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham 1989). This design is based on the premise that an exploration is needed for one of several reasons: (1) a measure or instruments are not available, (2) the variables are unknown, or, (3) there is no guiding framework or theory (Cresswell, Plano Clark, Gutman, & Hanson, 2003). The four major steps of the exploratory design (with the associated phases of the current study) are depicted in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Flowchart of the Basic Procedures in Implementing an Exploratory Design

STEP 1: Design and Implement the Qualitative Strand (Phase 1)

- State qualitative research questions
- Determine the qualitative approach
- Obtain permission from research respondents
- Identify the qualitative sample
- Collect open-ended data with protocols
- Analyse the qualitative data using procedures of theme development and those specific to the qualitative approach to identify the information needed to inform the second phase

Outcome

- ***Sufficient coverage of variables (as suggested by literature review)***

STEP 2: Use Strategies to Build on the Qualitative Results (Phase 2)

- Refine quantitative research questions or propositions
    - If necessary, adapt quantitative research questions and propositions in light of qualitative results
- Determine how participants will be selected for the quantitative sample
- Design and pilot-test a quantitative data collection instrument based on the qualitative results

Outcome

- ***Reliable and valid measuring instruments***

STEP 3: Design and Implement the Quantitative Strand (Phase 2 and Phase 3)

- State quantitative research questions or propositions
    - If necessary, adapt quantitative research questions and propositions in light of qualitative results
- Determine the quantitative approach
- Obtain permission from research participants
- Analyse the quantitative data using descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, and effect sizes to answer the quantitative research questions

Outcome

- ***Trustworthy data for evaluating propositions***

STEP 4: Interpret the Results (Chapters 4 and 5)

- Summarise and interpret the qualitative results
- Summarise and interpret the quantitative results

Outcome

- ***Theoretically sound and empirically supported conceptual model***

Adapted from Creswell et al. (2011, p. 88)

In the current study, the purpose of the qualitative phase was two-fold: Firstly, to seek confirmation whether the instruments to be utilised (in the quantitative phase) covered relevant constructs that were seen as important (from a theoretical perspective). Secondly, to establish whether there were additional themes that were not adequately covered by the selected instruments. Greater emphasis was, however, placed on the quantitative phase of the exploratory sequential design in the current study. Given the lesser emphasis to be placed on the qualitative phase of the current study, the advantages associated with qualitative research may not have been fully realised.

The following table provides a summary of the sequential research design and relevant information in terms of the research design utilised in the current study.

Table 3.2

Methodological Summary of Sequential Research Design Phases

Sequential Research Design Phase	Sample Size	Sampling Design	Data Collection Technique	Data Analysis Technique	Outcome
Qualitative Strand (Phase 1)	30	Purposive/Judgemental sampling	• Qualitative Interviews	Conceptual Analysis	Inform Phase 2
Quantitative Strand (Phase 2) Instrument Development/ Pilot Phase	220	Convenience sampling	• Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Adapted) • Past Leadership (Self-developed Scale) • Job Demands-Resources Scale (Adapted) • Job Resources (Past) (Self-developed Scale) • Supportive Organisational Climate Questionnaire (Adapted) • Psychological Empowerment Scale • Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24) • Objective Career Success – (Current) (Self-developed Scale)	Reliability Analysis Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)	Inform Phase 3

Table 3.2 (continued).

Methodological Summary of Sequential Research Design Phases

Sequential Research Design Phase	Sample Size	Sampling Design	Data Collection Technique	Data Analysis Technique	Outcome
			• Objective Career Success – (Past) (Self-developed Scale) • Perceived Career Success Scale • Perceived Internal Marketability Scale • Perceived External Marketability Scale		
Quantitative Strand (Phase 3) Main Study	418	Convenience Sampling	• Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Adapted) • Leadership (Past) (Self-developed Scale) • Job Demands-Resources Scale (Adapted) • Job Resources (Past) (Self-developed Scale) • Supportive Organisational Climate Questionnaire (Adapted) • Psychological Empowerment Scale • Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24 • Objective Career Success - (Current) (Self-developed Scale) • Objective Career Success – (Past) (Self-developed Scale) • Perceived Career Success Scale • Perceived Internal Marketability Scale • Perceived External Marketability Scale	Reliability Analysis Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Bivariate Correlations Multiple Regression Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)	To be reported in Chapters 4 and 5

In the following section an overview of the qualitative strand (Phase 1) will be provided: The primary purpose was to seek confirmation whether the instruments to be utilised (in the quantitative phase) cover relevant issues that are seen as important

(from a theoretical perspective). In addition, it was also aimed to establish whether there were themes that were not adequately covered by the selected instruments.

3.3 Qualitative Strand (Phase 1)

The following section highlights the qualitative research paradigm which forms the basis of Phase 1.

3.3.1 Qualitative research paradigm.

There does not seem to be a fixed single definition or approach to conducting qualitative research (Long & Godfrey, 2004). According to Babbie and Mouton (2001, p. 53), the term "qualitative research paradigm" refers to "that generic research approach in social research according to which research takes its departure point as the insider perspective on social action". The latter authors argue that "the goal of research is defined as describing and understanding (verstehen) rather than the explanation and prediction of human behaviour" (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 53).

The following section will provide an overview of the sampling design used in Phase 1 of the current study.

3.3.1.1 Sampling design for phase 1.

A purposive or judgmental sample design was selected for the Phase 1 qualitative interviews. The sample was selected on the basis of the researcher's knowledge of the population, its elements and the nature of the research aims. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001, p. 166), this type of sampling design is "based on your judgement and the purpose of the study". These authors posit that "qualitative research seeks to maximise the range of specific information that can be obtained from and about that context, by purposefully selecting locations and informants that differ from one another" (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 277).

The following criteria were used to define and select the sample:

- White-collar employee,
- A minimum, grade 12 qualification, and
- Black designated employee group (African, coloured, and Indian).

3.3.1.1.1 Sample characteristics.

The research was conducted at three large South African organisations (two in the Fast Moving Consumer Group (FMCG) industry, and one in the Service industry). During the qualitative strand, 30 participants from these three organisations were invited to participate in a semi-structured interview. Individual interviews were conducted with all these participants.

The biographical characteristics of the sample of respondents who participated in the interviews are reported in this section.

The following table reports the race by gender distribution:

Table 3.3

Frequency Distribution: Race by Gender (Phase 1)

Race	Female/(% Total)	Male/(%Total)
African	6 (20%)	9 (30%)
Coloured	5 (17%)	5 (17%)
Indian	3 (10%)	2 (6%)
Other	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

From this table it is evident that the majority of the sample comprised of African candidates, more specifically African males.

The following table reports the age distribution:

Table 3.4

Frequency Distribution: Age (Phase 1)

Age Category (Years)	Number of Respondents/(%Total)
18-30	6 (20%)
31-40	15 (50%)
41-50	6 (20%)
51-60	3 (10%)
61-65	0 (0%)

From this table it is evident that 50% of the respondents were between the ages of 31 and 40.

The following table reports on the distribution of home language in the current sample:

Table 3.5

Frequency Distribution: Home Language (Phase 1)

Home Language	Number of Respondents/(% Total)
English	16 (53%)
Xhosa	5 (17%)
Afrikaans	1 (3%)
Venda	1 (3%)
Zulu	2 (7%)
Ndebele	0
South Sotho	1 (3%)
North Sotho	1 (3%)
Tsonga	1 (3%)
Tswana	1 (3%)
Swazi	0
Other	1 (3%)

It is evident that the majority of the respondents (53%) identified English as their home language.

The following table reports on the distribution of qualifications in the current sample:

Table 3.6

Frequency Distribution: Highest Qualification (Phase 1)

Highest Qualification Obtained	Number of Respondents/(% Total)
Grade 12 or Equivalent	5 (17%)
Post High School Certificate	1 (3%)
Diploma	7 (23%)
Bachelors Degree	12 (40%)
Honours Degree	2 (7%)
Masters Degree	2 (7%)
Doctoral Degree	1 (3%)
Post-Doctoral Degree	0 (0%)

It is clear that the majority of respondents obtained a Bachelors degree (40%).

The following table reports on the distribution of tenure in current and previous position in the current sample:

Table 3.7

Frequency Distribution: Tenure in Current and Previous Position (Phase 1)

Tenure in (Years)	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Current position	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Previous position
0-5	24 (80%)	22 (73%)
6-10	5 (17%)	4 (13%)
11-15	0 (0%)	3 (10%)
16-20	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
21-25	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
26-30	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
31-35	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

It is evident that that the majority of respondents have been employed in their current position between 0 and 5 years and that the majority of the respondents stayed between 0 and 5 years in their previous position.

The following table reports on the distribution of occupational level in current and previous position in the current sample:

Table 3.8

Frequency Distribution: Occupational Level in Current and Previous Position (Phase 1)

Occupational Level	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Current position	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Previous position
Top Management (Director)	2 (7%)	1 (3%)
Senior Management	1 (3%)	3 (10%)
Middle Management	10 (33%)	6 (20%)
Junior Management	10 (33%)	6 (20%)
Supervisor/Foreman	1 (3%)	3 (10%)
Employee (Non-Supervisor/Manager)	6 (20%)	11 (37%)

It is evident that that the majority of respondents found themselves in middle (33%) and junior (33%) management levels in their current position. The majority of respondents were in non-supervisory/management (37%) positions in their previous position.

3.3.1.2 Data collection technique.

The researcher conducted a semi-structured interview with each of the 30 respondents based on a specifically developed interview guide (see Appendix A). The primary purpose was to seek confirmation that the instruments to be utilised cover relevant issues that are seen as important. In addition, it was also aimed to establish whether there were themes that were not adequately covered by the selected instruments.

In line with the technique adopted for the qualitative strand (Phase 1), Kerlinger and Lee (2000) claim that one of the main purposes of qualitative interviews is that it can be used for exploratory purposes to assist in identifying variables and relations, as well as to help in guiding other phases of research. Cannell and Kahn (as cited in Kerlinger & Lee, 2000) allude to two broad types of interviews: structured and unstructured, or standardised and unstandardised. In the semi-structured type of interview chosen for the qualitative strand (Phase 1), the questions, their sequence, and their wording are fixed. Interviewees were allowed to share additional experiences related to career success that may not have been solicited by the structured questions.

Babbie and Mouton (2001, p. 289), advocate that "the basic individual interview is one of the most frequently used methods of data collection within the qualitative approach" and suggest that "it differs from most other types of interview in that it is an open interview which allows the object of study to speak for him/her/itself". According to Rubin and Rubin (1995, p. 43), the qualitative interviewing design is characterised by being "flexible, iterative, and continuous, rather than prepared in advance and locked in stone". These authors further state that "design in qualitative interviewing is iterative… That means that each time you repeat the basic process of gathering information, analysing it, winnowing it and testing it, you come closer to a clear and convincing model of the phenomenon you are studying…The continuous nature of qualitative interviewing means that the questioning is redesigned throughout the project" (Rubin & Rubin, 1995, pp. 46-47).

Kvale (1996, p. 88) details seven stages in a complete interviewing process:

1. *Thematising*: clarifying the purpose of the interviews and the concepts to be explored,
2. *Designing:* laying out the process through which the purpose will be accomplished, including a consideration of the ethical dimension,
3. *Interviewing:* doing the actual interviews,
4. *Transcribing:* writing a text of the interviews,

5. *Analysing:* determining the meaning of gathered materials in relation to the purpose of the study,
6. *Verifying:* checking the reliability and validity of the materials, and
7. *Reporting:* telling others what you've learned.

Focussing on stage 5 above, the data-analysis technique associated with Phase 1 of the current study will briefly be discussed.

3.3.1.3 Data analysis technique.

The qualitative data analysis technique utilised in the current study will be content analysis. More specifically, conceptual analysis (a type of content analysis) will be used. Conceptual analysis is also known as thematic analysis. Babbie and Mouton (2001, p. 388) define content analysis as a "coding operation" utilised to code and categorise any and all forms of communication. The qualitative content analysis process involves deconstructing the data, followed by reconstructing the data text.

Palmquist (as cited in Babbie & Mouton, 2001) defines content analysis as a research method which:

> *…examines words or phrases within a wide range of texts, including books, book chapters, essays, interviews and speeches as well as informal conversation and headlines. By examining the presence or repetition of certain words and phrases in these texts, a researcher is able to make inferences about the philosophical assumptions of a writer, a written piece, the audience for which a piece is written, and even the culture and time in which the text is embedded. Due to its wide range of applications content analysis is used by researchers in literature and rhetoric, marketing, psychology and cognitive science, as well as many other fields.*

According to Palmquist (as cited in Babbie & Mouton, 2001, pp. 492-493), the process of conceptual analysis consists of the following 8 steps:

1. Deciding on the level of analysis
2. Deciding on how many concepts to code for
3. Deciding whether to code for the existence or frequency of a concept
4. Deciding how to distinguish between concepts
5. Developing rules for the coding of texts

6. Deciding what to do with irrelevant information
7. Coding texts
8. Analysing results

Applying the above 8 steps to the current study, a discussion of the content analysis process followed is provided below:

The researcher first read through the detailed notes recorded in the interview guides flowing from the semi-structured interviews. The purpose of this first step was to gain a high-level overview of the data. This was important, given that the coding process is inductive in nature. Codes were selected on the basis that sections of the text were linked to data which was meaningful to the researcher - hence an initial rigorous overview of the data was imperative. Units of meaning were identified (located in one or more sentences or phrases) of the text recorded in the completed interview guides. The units of meaning were coded and related codes were grouped (categorised). This process included reading and re-reading the texts. The data was coded for frequency and subsequently analysed in order to extract themes and higher-order themes emerging from the data. Examples of positive and negative comments typically illustrating the substantive content of the themes were highlighted. The qualitative research results are presented in the Chapter 4.

In the following section, the outcome of Phase 1 will be presented.

3.3.1.4 Outcome of phase 1.

Regarding the outcome of the qualitative interviews, the data, as well as the derived themes will be communicated in Chapters 4 and 5. However, given the nature of the exploratory sequential design, it is important to identify and highlight qualitative information/results that may inform the second phase (i.e. Instrument Development) (Cresswell et al., 2004). The following has a direct impact on Phase 2:

- Three additional items related to job resources had to be included, specifically one item for “advancement” and two items for “organisational support”.

- Two new items related to a supportive organisational climate, specifically cultural sensitivity, were added. The rationale for including two new items was based on the frequency with which the concept "diversity" surfaced on a number of occasions during the qualitative interviews.

From the qualitative results it was clear that the above two constructs lacked coverage of the identified issues. Finally the qualitative results did not suggest any further changes to the measuring instruments to be used in Phase 2.

3.4 Quantitative Strand (Phase 2)

The main focus of the Quantitative Strand (Phase 2) was to determine the psychometric properties (i.e. reliability and factor structure) associated with each of the ten variables used in the current study. This information was used to inform how these constructs should be conceptualised in Phase 3.

It should be noted that the information obtained in terms of the psychometric properties of the various constructs was to influence the process to be followed during Phase 3.

In the following section the research design that was utilised in the quantitative strand (Phase 2) will be discussed.

3.4.1 Survey research design.

In order to provide an answer to the research questions and the resultant propositions, a survey methodology, making use of standardised measuring instruments, was followed. Primary data was collected through standardised questionnaires that allow for numerical manipulation. Survey research entails the administration of questionnaires to a sample of respondents that form part of a larger population in order to discover the relative prevalence, distribution, and interrelations of psychological variables (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Surveys take various forms, including mail, self-administered, face-to-face and telephone surveys and can be utilised for descriptive, exploratory and explanatory research (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

The self-administered survey form (in which respondents independently complete questionnaires) was chosen for the current study, specifically in Phase 2 and Phase 3 (see Appendices B and C). This approach is only appropriate when the population under study is adequately literate, a requirement that was set to all respondents.

Some disadvantages of survey research include: (a) a possible low response rate to the survey and a chance for significant response bias, (b) the researcher's lack of control over the conditions accompanying questionnaire completion, (c) receiving incomplete questionnaires, and (d) the researcher's lack of observation with regard to how respondents react towards questions and the research setting (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Newman, 1997).

In the following section, an overview of the statistical modelling approach to be used in the current study will be provided.

3.4.2 Statistical modelling.

Although survey studies provide a broad overview of the phenomenon being studied, they lack the ability to evaluate the theoretical models developed through a literature review. To overcome this limitation, statistical modelling must also be combined with survey studies. A theoretical model is developed through a process of theorising as suggested in previous research studies. Data collected through the use of survey studies is used to quantitatively explore the theoretical model. Most often multivariate statistical analyses are used to evaluate and explore theoretical models. These analyses include multiple regression analysis and structural equation modelling (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Mouton, 2001). Multiple regression and structural equation modelling are discussed later in this section.

Both survey and statistical modelling studies have in common the use of survey data based on a sample. This highlights the importance of choosing a sample that is appropriate for the study with regard to sample size, level of education and other prerequisites of the specific study. The importance of sampling and the sampling design used for this study is elaborated on in the next section.

3.4.3 Sampling design.

The aim of sampling is to obtain a representative indication regarding a sample's opinions and attitudes regarding the phenomenon being studied, which is reflective of the total population (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Mouton, 2001; Newman, 1997). The sample must be representative of the population in which the psychometric instruments are going to be used. Babbie and Mouton (2001) recommend that the psychometric battery used in a study must be administered to a relatively large sample (approximately 100 subjects, depending on the number of tests or instruments in the battery). The researcher can, however, at best hope that the relevant characteristics of the population will be present in the sample in approximately the same way they are present in the population. The benefits of such an approach makes the sampling variability predictable (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000) whilst allowing the researcher to generalise from those observations to the wider population (Babbie, 1998).

The same criteria that were utilised to select the participants in Phase 1 are also applicable to Phase 2. The study used the complete database of email addresses of the respondents. The three organisations that were identified in Phase 1 provided these email addresses. Survey questionnaires were emailed to all these individuals. No sample was drawn from the population. Thus, the total population was treated as the potential sample.

3.4.3.1 Sample characteristics.

During the Quantitative Strand (Phase 2) a total of 220 viable questionnaires were returned. Thus, in terms of size and composition, this sample was adequate for use in the research study.

The biographical characteristics of the sample of respondents who participated in the (Phase 2) are reported in the following section.

The following table reports on the distribution of race by gender in the current sample:

Table 3.9

Frequency Distribution: Race by Gender (Phase 2)

Race	Female/ (% Total)	Male/ (%Total)
African	21 (9%)	40 (18%)
Coloured	82 (37%)	59 (27%)
Indian	5 (2%)	10 (5%)
Other	2 (1%)	1 (0%)

It is evident that the majority of respondents were coloured females (37%), followed by coloured males (27%) and African males (18%).

The following table reports on the age distribution in the current sample:

Table 3.10

Frequency Distribution: Age (Phase 2)

Age Category (Years)	Number of Respondents/(%Total)
18-30	34 (15%)
31-40	98 (45%)
41-50	67 (30%)
51-60	18 (8%)
61-65	3 (1%)

It is evident that that the majority of respondents were in the 31-40 year age group.

The following table reports on the distribution of home language in the current sample:

Table 3.11

Frequency Distribution: Home language (Phase 2)

Home Language	Number of Respondents/(% Total)
English	91 (41%)
Xhosa	16 (7%)
Afrikaans	73 (33%)
Venda	1 (0%)
Zulu	13 (6%)
Ndebele	1 (0%)
South Sotho	10 (5%)
North Sotho	1 (0%)
Tsonga	0 (0%)
Tswana	10 (5%)
Swazi	2 (1%)
Other	2 (1%)

It is clear that most of the respondents speak English as their home language (41%), closely followed by Afrikaans (33%).

The following table reports on the highest qualification distribution in the current sample:

Table 3.12

Frequency Distribution: Highest Qualification (Phase 2)

Highest Qualification Obtained	Number of Respondents/(% Total)
Grade 12 or Equivalent	62 (28%)
Post High School Certificate	19 (9%)
Diploma	80 (36%)
Bachelors Degree	38 (17%)
Honours Degree	13 (6%)
Masters Degree	8 (4%)
Doctoral Degree	0 (0%)
Post-Doctoral Degree	0 (0%)

It is evident that the majority of respondents have a diploma (36%), followed by grade 12 or equivalent (28%).

The following table reports on the distribution of tenure in the current and previous position in the current sample.

Table 3.13

Frequency Distribution: Tenure in Current and Previous Position (Phase 2)

Tenure in (Years)	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Current position	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Previous position
0-5	145 (66%)	143 (65%)
6-10	39 (18%)	42 (19%)
11-15	15 (7%)	21 (10%)
16-20	12 (5%)	11 (5%)
21-25	2 (1%)	3 (1%)
26-30	3 (1%)	0 (0%)
31-35	4 (2%)	0 (0%)

It is clear that most of the respondents (66%) have been in their current positions between 0 and 5 years and that most of the respondents (65%) have been in their previous positions between 0 and 5 years.

The following table reports on the current and previous occupational level occupied in the current sample.

Table 3.14

Frequency Distribution: Occupational Level in Current and Previous Position (Phase 2)

Occupational Level	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Current position	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Previous position
Top Management (Director)	1 (0%)	1 (0%)
Senior Management	18 (8%)	7 (3%)
Middle Management	53 (24%)	43 (20%)
Junior Management	35 (16%)	41 (19%)
Supervisor/Foreman	26 (12%)	30 (14%)
Employee (Non-Supervisor/Manager)	87 (40%)	98 (45%)

It is clear that most of the respondents were in non-supervisory/managerial positions (40%) followed by middle management (24%) in their current position. It is evident that most of the respondents were in non-supervisory/managerial positions (45%) followed by middle management (20%) in their previous position.

3.4.4 Data collection technique.

The newest innovations in self-administered questionnaires make use of computer-delivered technology. The respondent receives the computerised self-administered questionnaire (CSAQ) via email and runs the software which asks questions and accepts the respondent's answers. Following this, the respondent returns the data file (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Nicholls, Baker and Martin (1997) report that such techniques are more efficient than conventional techniques, and do not appear to result in a reduction of data quality. This method holds certain advantages: (a) it makes the analysis of large datasets possible through the use of computer technology, (b) it is relatively inexpensive and concise, enabling quick completion, (c) it minimises interviewer bias and is largely accurate, (d) it allows for anonymous and honest responses from respondents, and (e) minimises or even eliminates the problem of missing values in a dataset.

In the following two sections emphasis is placed on (a) data collection via electronic means and (b) information on each of the measuring instruments related to each of the ten constructs.

3.4.5 Procedure and ethical considerations

During (Phase 2) and the main study (Phase 3), the following steps were followed:

- A research website was established. The surveys were announced in advance by the researcher within each of the three companies, partly because many people delete messages from people they do not recognise. For this study, the respective HR Directors of each of the three organisations agreed to the sending out of such an email message to participants. This announcement stressed that participation in the survey is voluntary. The message further contained the goals of the questionnaire, the importance of the response, and the researcher's email address from which the questionnaires were sent. Electronic surveys do pose some problems, one of which is that respondents must have access to email. Less obvious, may be the potential non-anonymous nature of email. However, respondents were guaranteed that their anonymity will be strictly protected, and that any information obtained in connection with the study could not be personally identified with them and would be treated as highly confidential. It was further confirmed that the survey data would be securely stored in the University of Stellenbosch data base.

- Each participant was sent, via their email system, a link to the composite online survey. The latter consisted of questions measuring each of the ten constructs used in the current study. Delivering a survey electronically did not change the basics. Asking for opinions creates expectations of action, and the participating organisations will make the results available in some form. There were many advantages to conducting the survey electronically. Since the data could be analysed with great speed, the respondents and the organisation would receive a summary of the findings in electronic format. There is no cost for printing or postage, and no waste of paper.

- Respondents were informed that there were no potential risks or discomforts envisaged by participating in the study. Respondents were requested to complete an informed consent agreement, voluntarily confirming their consent to participate in the study, notwithstanding their right to withdraw the consent at anytime without consequences or penalty. Respondents were also informed of their rights as research subjects, whereby they do not waive any legal claims, rights or remedies because of their participation in the study.

- Respondents were informed that any concerns about the research could be directed to the Principal Researcher (Shayne Roux) or his Promoter (Professor Johan Malan) and that any questions regarding their rights as a research subject could be directed to the Unit of Research Development at the University of Stellenbosch. The above-mentioned ethical considerations were also applicable to Phase 1 of the study.

- Respondents had to complete the entire questionnaire on their own. Respondents were given the opportunity to complete the questionnaires during working hours, whenever they had the time to work on it.

- A follow-up message was sent to respondents in order to increase the response rate (Zatz, 2000). However, this message was short and stressed the importance of responding.

The following section will provide information on the measuring instruments used to measure the ten constructs.

3.4.6 Measuring instruments.

Measuring the identified variables requires the use of standardised measuring instruments to measure each variable. A detailed discussion of each questionnaire's psychometric properties follows. This discussion of the measuring instruments is guided by the suggested sequence in the proposed conceptual model (See Chapter 2). For the purpose of this study, in order to identify the leadership role, the direct line managers/immediate supervisors were regarded as being in the leadership role. In

short, respondents evaluated the perceived transformational leadership behaviours of their line manager and their own perceived levels of job resources and past job resources, the perceived supportive organisational climate, their degree of psychological empowerment and psychological capital (PsyCap), and how this ultimately affects their career success.

The first construct to be discussed is transformational leadership.

3.4.6.1 Transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership was measured using an adapted version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Engelbrecht & Chamberlain, 2005; Krafft, Engelbrecht & Theron, 2004), originally developed by Bass (1985) and later revised by Bass and Avolio (1994). Transformational leadership was measured by four sub-scales, (1) idealised influence, (2) inspirational motivation, (3) intellectual stimulation, and (4) individualised consideration. The 6-point rating scale ranges from 1, "almost never" to 6, "almost always".

Bass and Avolio's (1995) conceptualisation of transformational leadership includes charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. Pillai, Schriesheim and Williams (1999) have identified the MLQ as the most widely used instrument of transformational leadership, and Bass (1997) has also cited an extensive range of studies from almost every sector and every continent to support the reliability and validity of the original questionnaire.

The MLQ relies on a multi-rater scale that allows leaders to report on themselves or employees to report on their leaders. The scale consists of three subscales for transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership. Only items relevant to transformational leadership were included in the composite questionnaire that was employed in the current study. This decision was based on the conceptual model which was developed from theory, as alluded to in Chapter 2. The current study focuses on transformational leadership and its anticipated role in subjective career success, as well as the other related variables. The transactional leadership and liassez-faire leadership scales were not used, as they were not considered relevant to

the current study. The rater-version of the transformational leadership scale was utilised for the current study.

Bass and Avolio (1994) reported a Cronbach alpha of .89 for the MLQ and .87 for the short form of the MLQ. Cronbach alpha coefficients of .93 for idealised influence, .72 for inspirational motivation, .81 for intellectual stimulation and .75 for individualised consideration were found for the sub-scales of transformational leadership (Den Hartog, Muijen, & Koopman, 1997) in earlier studies. Lowe, Kroek and Sivasubramaniam (1996) reported similar Cronbach alpha coefficients for the four transformational leadership sub-scales. Moreover, in the South African environment, a study by Krafft et al. (2004) revealed Cronbach alpha coefficients of .84 for idealised influence, .80 for inspirational motivation, .72 for intellectual stimulation, and .77 for individualised consideration. In addition, Engelbrecht and Chamberlain (2005) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients, namely .94 for idealised influence, .92 for inspirational motivation, .92 for intellectual stimulation and .92 for individualised consideration.

Examples of items measuring transformational leadership are provided in Table 3.15 below.

Table 3.15

Examples of Transformational Leadership Items

Item	Example
1	My immediate supervisor/manager acts in ways that builds my success.
3	My immediate supervisor/manager talks about his/her most important values and beliefs.
6	My immediate supervisor/manager instils pride in being associated with him/her.
8	My immediate supervisor/manager specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.
11	My immediate supervisor/manager treats you as an individual rather than just a member of a group.
16	My immediate supervisor/manager gets me to look at problems from many different angles.

The following section provides a discussion of the instrument used to measure past leadership.

3.4.6.2 Past leadership.

Five self-developed items were used to measure past leadership. The questions are rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1, "strongly disagree" to 5, "strongly agree". The impact of past occurrences, (e.g. past leadership) on current and future career success seems to be supported by theory. This is illustrated by the notion of careers being viewed as a journey of transitions over one's working life, (Hall, 1976, 1996; Sullivan, 1999; Super 1980), in which there is an implicit understanding that what has already occurred, (e.g., the role of past leadership), will affect current and future career success (Feldman & Ng, 2007; Super, 1980).

Examples of items measuring past leadership are provided in Table 3.16.

Table 3.16

Examples of Past Leadership Items

Item	Example
1	My previous supervisors/managers in my career history contributed to my current career satisfaction.
2	My previous supervisors/managers in my career history contributed to my current marketability for other positions inside the company.
3	My previous supervisors/managers in my career history contributed to my current marketability for other positions outside the company.
4	My previous supervisors/managers in my career history contributed to my current growth in salary.
5	My previous supervisors/managers in my career history contributed to my current opportunities for promotion.

The psychometric properties associated with the above construct will be reported n Chapter 4.

The following section provides a discussion of the instrument used to measure job resources.

3.4.6.3 Job resources.

Job resources were measured by an adapted version of the Job Demands-Resources Scale (JDRS) developed by Jackson and Rothmann (2005). The version used in the current study comprises 38 items (three of which are self-developed), and the questions are rated on a 4-point scale ranging from (1) always to (4) never.

Jackson, Rothmann and van de Vijver (2006) conducted a principal component analysis on their 42 item version, which showed four factors and which explained 40 % of the variance. Subsequently, the four factors of the JDR scale were subjected to a second-order principle component analysis. Two factors which explained 73.99 % of the variance were extracted. Because oblique rotation showed that the factors were not strongly related (r= - .18), it was decided to use principal factor analysis with a Varimax rotation. Overload (.90) formed the first factor (labelled job demands), while organisational support (.84), growth opportunities (0.86), and advancement (.66) formed the second factor (labelled job resources).

Whereas the above researchers extracted four dimensions, Rothmann and Jordaan (2006) extracted six factors (organisational support, growth opportunities, overload, social support, advancement, and job insecurity) that accounted for 52% of the variance in the data. Hence, only the following four job resources sub-scales were utilised in the current study (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006, p. 91):

- organisational support (this refers to the relationship with supervisors, flow of information needed to do the job, communication, role clarity and participation in decision-making)
    - On the basis of the qualitative interviews, two self-developed organisational support items were added (see items 31 and 32 in Table 3.17 below)
- growth opportunities (this factor refers to having enough variety, opportunities to learn and independence in the job), and
- advancement (this includes items relating to remuneration, career possibilities and training opportunities),
    - On the basis of the qualitative interviews, a single self-developed advancement item was added (see item 30 in Table 3.17).

- social support (this factor refers to contact opportunities with others and social support from colleagues).

The authors (Rothmann & Jordaan, 2006, p. 92) found the following reliabilities for each of the previous four dimensions: organisational support (α= .92), growth opportunities (α= .85), social support (α= .77), and advancement opportunities (α= .76).

Coetzer and Rothmann (2005) found the following alpha coefficients in a manufacturing organisation study: organisational support (α= .92), growth opportunities (α= .88), social support (α= .79), and advancement opportunities (α= .89). In a further study with a South African sample, Rothmann, Mostert and Strydom (2006) found alpha coefficients for the JDRS that varied between .76 and .92.

The four job resource dimensions, namely growth opportunities, advancement, organisational support, and social support have been selected for inclusion in the adapted measuring instrument for the current study. The job demands scale was not relevant for inclusion in the current study due to the fact that emphasis is placed on the importance of job resources in subjective career success.

Examples of items measuring job resources are provided in Table 3.17 below.

Table 3.17

Examples of Job Resources Items

Item	Example
2	Do you have enough variety in your work?
6	Do you have the freedom of carrying out your work activities?
10	If necessary, can you ask colleagues for help?
14	In your work, do you feel appreciated by your immediate supervisor/manager?
18	Do you receive sufficient information on the purpose of your work?
30	Do you think the organisational structure of your company provides sufficient opportunities for your career development?
31	Do you think that your company provides you with access to the latest technology in order to facilitate optimal performance?
32	Do you think that your immediate supervisor/manager actively supports your career development?

The following section provides a discussion of the instrument used to measure past job resources.

3.4.6.4 Past job resources.

Five self-developed items were used to measure past job resources. The questions are rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1, "strongly disagree" to 5, "strongly agree". The impact of past occurrences, (e.g. past job resources) on current and future career success seems to be supported by theory. This is illustrated by the notion of careers being viewed as a journey of transitions over one's working life, (Hall, 1976, 1996; Sullivan, 1999; Super 1980), in which there is an implicit understanding that what has already occurred, (e.g., the role of past job resources), will affect current and future career success (Feldman & Ng, 2007; Super, 1980).

Examples of items measuring past job resources are provided in Table 3.18 below.

Table 3.18

Examples of Past Job Resources Items

Item	Example
1	Do you think your previous work circumstances in your career history have contributed to your current career satisfaction?
2	Do you think your previous work circumstances in your career history have contributed to your current marketability for other positions inside the company?
3	Do you think your previous work circumstances in your career history have contributed to your current marketability for other positions outside the company?
4	Do you think your previous work circumstances in your career history have contributed to your current growth in salary?
5	Do you think your previous work circumstances in your career history have contributed to your current opportunities for promotion?

The psychometric properties associated with the above construct will be reported in Chapter 4.

The following section provides a discussion of the instrument to be used to measure a supportive organisational climate.

3.4.6.5 Supportive organisational climate.

The respondent's perception of the supportive organisational climate was measured by utilising an adapted version of the Supportive Organisational Climate Questionnaire developed by Rogg et al. (2001).

Coefficient alpha's for the four dimensions (cooperation/coordination, employee commitment, managerial competence and consistency, and customer orientation) ranged from .80 to .90. Rogg and his colleagues (2001) only fitted a single-factor model for supportive organisational climate. The model seemed to fit the data well (X^2= 694.58, df= 185, RMSEA= .04, except for NNFI and CFI (NNFI= .86, and CFI= .88).

For the purpose of the current study, only three of the four dimensions were used, namely managerial competence and consistency, employee commitment, and cooperation/coordination - consisting of 17 items. The questions are rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1, "strongly disagree" to 5, "strongly agree".

- cooperation/coordination (refers to the degree to which various units within the organisation cooperated and trusted each other),
- employee commitment (refers to the degree to which employees would support organisational goals and welfare), and
- managerial competence and consistency (refers to the degree to which managers are consistent in their treatment of employees).

The fourth dimension, customer orientation was not used as it was not considered relevant to the current study. The remaining three climate dimensions used in the current study are similar to climate dimensions consistently found in previous studies (James & James, 1989; Jones & James, 1979; Kopelman et al., 1990; Schneider, 1990).

It should be noted that during the qualitative strand (Phase 1), it was mentioned that two additional items related to cultural sensitivity had to be included. Consequently the customer orientation dimension was removed and replaced by the cultural sensitivity dimension.

Examples of items measuring supportive organisational climate are provided in Table 3.19.

Table 3.19

Examples of Supportive Organisational Climate Items

Item	Example
1	Managers follow through on commitments.
3	Managers take action on new ideas provided by employees.
6	Managers consider both the department's goals and employees when making decisions.
8	Employees trust each other.
11	Employees know they are valued.
16	Departments communicate key information to each other in a timely manner.
18	My immediate supervisor/manager is sensitive to cultural differences.
19	Employees feel welcome in the company despite cultural differences.

The following section provides a discussion of the instrument used to measure psychological empowerment.

3.4.6.6 Psychological empowerment.

Psychological empowerment was measured by utilising Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item Psychological Empowerment Scale.

The 7-point rating scale ranges from 1, "strongly disagree' to 7, "strongly agree". The measure consists of four subscales (meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact) designed to reflect the Spreitzer (1995) definition of empowerment. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the overall empowerment construct in two different samples ranged between .62 and .72 (Spreitzer, 1995). In evaluating a second-order factor structure (i.e. the relationship between empowerment and its four sub-

dimensions), the following fit indices were obtained (SRMR= .07, AGFI= .87 and NCNFI= .98).

Examples of items measuring psychological empowerment are provided in Table 3.20

Table 3.20

Examples of Psychological Empowerment Items

Item	Example
1	The work I do is very important to me.
3	The work I do is meaningful to me.
6	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.
7	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
8	I can decide on how I go about doing my work.
10	My impact on what happens in my department is large.

The following section provides a discussion of the instrument used to measure psychological capital (PsyCap).

3.4.6.7 Psychological capital (PsyCap).

PsyCap (i.e. optimism, self-efficacy, resilience, and hope) was measured using the PCQ-24 developed by Luthans et al. (2007).

PsyCap is a higher order construct consisting of four subscales, each consisting of six items for a total of 24 items. The subscales include hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism. All items were measured using a 6-point Likert scale of agreement with response options ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 6= strongly agree. The scale items were drawn from established scales previously published and tested. Each of these sub-scales have been used in recent workplace studies (Luthans et al., 2005; Youssef & Luthans, 2007), as well as the PCQ-24 as a whole (Avey, Wensing, & Luthans, 2008; Luthans, Avolio et al., 2007; Luthans et al., 2008**).** The hope items were originally adapted from Snyder, Sympson, Ybsaco, Borders, Babyak and Higgins (1996), while the efficacy items were adapted from Parker's (1998) measure of self-efficacy in the work situation. The resilience items were adapted from the Wagnild

and Young (1993) measure, and the optimism items were adapted from Scheier and Carver's (1985) measure of optimism.

During the construct validation study of the PCQ-24 (Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007), the following reliability coefficients were obtained: Hope (α= .72), resilience (α= .71), self-efficacy (α= .75), and optimism (α= .74). The overall PsyCap had a reliability of .88.

For the purposes of the current study, the self-rater version was utilised, as respondents were requested to evaluate their own perceived level of psychological capital (PsyCap).

Examples of items measuring psychological capital are provided in Table 3.21.

Table 3.21

Examples of Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Items

Item	Example
1	I feel confident analysing a long-term problem to find a solution.
3	I feel confident contributing to discussions about the organisation's strategy.
8	At the present time I am energetically pursuing my goals.
10	Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work.
14	I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.
24	I approach this job as if "every cloud has a silver lining".

The following section provides a discussion of the instruments used to measure career success.

3.4.6.8 Career success.

For the purposes of the current study, career success was conceptualised in terms of objective and subjective career success.

3.4.6.8.1 Objective career success (current).

Objective career success (current) was measured in terms of the criteria of salary (Thorndike, 1934) and promotion (Thorndike, 1963). Two self-developed items were used to measure objective career success (current).

Examples of items measuring objective career success (current) are provided in the Table 3.22.

Table 3.22

Examples of Objective Career Success (Current) Items

Item	Example
1	Indicate the number of additional salary increases you received over and above your normal annual salary increase during your employ with you current company.
2	Indicate the number of promotions you received during your employ with you current company.

The psychometric properties associated with objective career success (current) will be reported in Chapter 4.

3.4.6.8.2 Objective career success (past).

Objective career success (current) was measured in terms of the criteria of salary (Thorndike, 1934) and promotion (Thorndike, 1963). Two self-developed items were used to measure objective career success (past).

Examples of items measuring objective career success (past) are provided in Table 3.23.

Table 3.23

Examples of Objective Career Success (Past) Items

Item	Example
1	Indicate the number of salary increases you received over and above your normal annual salary increase during your employ with your previous company.
2	Indicate the number of promotions you received during your employ with you previous company.

The psychometric properties associated with objective career success (past) will be reported in Chapter 4.

3.4.6.8.3 Subjective career success.

The measurement of subjective career success consists of (1) perceived career success (i.e. career satisfaction) (Greenhaus et al., 1990), (2) perceived internal marketability (Johnson, 2001), and (3) perceived external marketability (Johnson, 2001). All items were measured using a 5-point Likert scale of agreement with response options ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 6= strongly agree.

In a previous study by Eby et al. (2003), a principal components factor analysis with oblique rotation was used to assess the dimensionality and uniqueness of these three dimensions. A three-factor solution was obtained with items loading on the appropriate *a priori* factors.

- ***Perceived career success*** (which captures feelings of satisfaction and accomplishment with one's career) will be measured using Greenhaus et al's. (1990) five-item measure. The coefficient alpha for this measure in a study by Eby et al. (2003) was .91.
- ***Perceived internal marketability*** (beliefs that one is valuable to his or her current employer) will be measured with three items adapted from Johnson (2001). The coefficient alpha for this measure in a study by Eby et al. (2003) was .73.
- ***Perceived external marketability*** (beliefs that one is valuable to other employers) will be measured by three similar items adapted from

Johnson (2001). The coefficient alpha for this measure in a study by Eby et al. (2003) was .73.

Examples of items measuring subjective career success are provided in Table 3.24.

Table 3.24

Examples of Subjective Career Success Items

Item	Example
1	I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.
4	I am satisfied with the progress I have made towards my goals for advancement.
8	There are many opportunities available for me in my company.
9	I could easily obtain a comparable job with another employer.

In order to determine the psychometric properties associated with each of the ten variables (i.e. reliability and factor structure), various statistical techniques can be used. The following section will discuss the data analysis techniques used in Phase 2 of the current study.

3.4.7 Data analysis techniques.

The main purpose of the Quantitative Strand (Phase 2) was to pilot-test a self-compiled data collection instrument. (See Table 3.1: Flowchart of the Basic Procedures in implementing an exploratory design). In order to evaluate the psychometric properties associated with the constructs, reliability analysis, confirmatory factor analyses (CFA), and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) are required. The following section will discuss these data analysis techniques in detail.

3.4.7.1 Reliability analysis.

The purpose of investigating reliability and inter-item correlations is to determine which of the items in a scale, if any, have a negative effect on the overall reliability of the scale due to their inclusion in the particular scale. If an improvement in overall scale reliability occurs as a result of excluding a particular item, such an item could

be excluded from subsequent analysis (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006).

3.4.7.1.1 General guidelines for interpreting reliability coefficients.

Good practice suggests that at least three items per dimension are required to provide adequate identification for a construct. In addition it seems as if the above guideline provides the minimum coverage of a variable's theoretical domain (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2011, p. 698).

Nunnally's (1967) guidelines were used to determine the critical levels of reliability for the scales and sub-scales and are indicated in Table 3.25 below.

Table 3.25

General Guidelines for Interpreting Reliability Coefficients

Reliability coefficient value	Interpretation
.90 and above	excellent
.80 - .89	good
.70 - .79	adequate
below .70	may have limited applicability

In order to determine the applicability of the proposed factor structure (associated with each of the constructs), confirmatory factor analysis should be used. This technique is the focus of the following section.

3.4.7.2 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

In the following section the purpose of confirmatory factor analysis is described.

3.4.7.2.1 Purpose of CFA.

To evaluate the quality of the measurements in terms of the data obtained (i.e. measurement models), confirmatory factor analysis must be conducted.

The purpose of carrying out a CFA is to provide statistical evidence on whether each of the identified variables is adequately defined in terms of the common variance among the indicators (i.e. items) in a measurement model (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005).

Confirmatory factor analysis is a way of testing how well measured variables represent a smaller number of constructs (Hair et al., 2006). In CFA, the researcher must specify the number of factors that exist within a set of variables and also on which factor each variable will load highly, before results can be computed. This information is obtained from the theory, and therefore the CFA serves to confirm the theoretical structure of the construct. Structural equation modelling is then used to test how well the theoretical pattern of factor loadings fits the actual data. Therefore, CFA assists researchers to either reject or accept their pre-conceived theory related to the factor structures associated with each construct.

There are several constructs used in this study. However, these constructs are measured through several indicators (i.e. items in a questionnaire). Thus, the latent variables are equivalent to the variables used in the study. The indicator variables (also known as manifest/observed variables) are equivalent to the items or parcels that are used to measure these constructs (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

In this study, CFA was used to confirm the factor structure of each of the variables (transformational leadership, past leadership, job resources, past job resources supportive organisational climate, psychological empowerment, psychological capital, objective career success and subjective career success) and to provide a confirmatory test of the measurement theory. Only once this is done and the factor structure is accepted with confidence, can the researcher continue to evaluate the research questions.

3.4.7.3 Method of estimation of models.

Once the measurement models have been specified, the next step is to determine how the measurement model will be estimated. In the present study, the method of estimation used in CFA was robust diagonally weighted least squares (WLS), also

called generalised least squares. The least squares method is widely used to find or estimate the numerical values of parameters to fit a function to a set of data and to characterise the statistical properties of estimates. Robust WLS approach allows for a combination of binary ordered polytomous and continuous outcome variables and allows for multi-group analysis (Muthén, 1993).

After the measurement model has been specified and the parameters have been estimated, the following step is the assessment of the quality of each of the measurement models, using a number of goodness-of-fit statistics. The following section provides an overview of the goodness-of-fit statistics to be used to determine the validity of the measurement models in the current study.

3.4.7.4 Evaluating goodness-of-fit through confirmatory factor analysis.

In evaluating the goodness-of-fit for the constructs used in the current study, several approximate fit indices may be consulted. Hence, the degree to which the observed matrix fits the sample matrix is determined through goodness-of-fit statistics, discussed in the following section.

3.4.7.5 Goodness-of-fit statistics.

Goodness-of-fit indices are numerical indices that evaluate how well the model accounts for the data. These indices can be compared for a series of models with an increasing number of common factors (Fletcher, 2007). For the purposes of this study, only the following goodness-of-fit statistics are discussed, as they are the most widely reported and used fit statistics (Byrne, 1998; Hair et al., 2006): Satorra-Bentler chi-square (S-B x2), standardised root mean square residual (SRMR), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), normed fit index (NFI), and comparative fit index (CFI).

3.4.7.5.1 Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square (S-B X^2).

A family of scaling corrections aimed to improve the chi-square approximation of goodness-of-fit test statistics in small samples, large models and non-normal data was proposed by Satorra and Bentler (1994). The Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square is used when robust estimation techniques are employed. The reason why robust estimation

techniques are used is when data deviates from the normal distribution. If the data departs markedly from multivariate normality, the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi square statistic (S-B X^2) should be used to provide an improved estimate of the fit of a model (Satorra et al., 1994).

3.4.7.5.2 Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR).

The SRMR is the standardised square root of the mean of the squared residuals, in other words, an average of the residuals between individual observed and estimated covariance and variance terms. Lower SRMR values represent better fit and higher values represent worse fit. The average SRMR value is 0, meaning that both positive and negative residuals can occur (Hair et al., 2006). An arbitrary cut-off of between .05 and .08 can be suggested for SRMR (Byrne, 1998; Hair et al., 2006).

3.4.6.5.3 The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA).

The RMSEA is a good representation of how well the model fits the population, not just the sample used for estimation. Lower RMSEA values indicate a better fit (Hair et al., 2006). In general, as with SRMR, values below .10 for the RMSEA are indicative of acceptable fit, with values below .05 suggesting a very good fit (Byrne, 1998; Hair et al., 2006). An arbitrary cut-off of between .05 and .08 can be suggested for RMSEA (Byrne, 1998; Hair et al., 2006).

3.4.7.5.4 Normed Fit Index (NFI).

A general guideline for the interpretation of the NFI is that values of .90 and higher indicate satisfactory fit between the postulated model and empirical data (Hair et al., 2006).

3.4.7.5.5 Comparative Fit Index (CFI).

The CFI is an improved fit statistic of NFI. Values above .90 are indicative of acceptable fit (Byrne, 1998; Hair et al., 2006).

The following section focuses on the second major approach to factor analysis, namely exploratory factor analysis.

3.4.8 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

In those instances where confirmatory factor analysis results suggest a poor fit between the observed data and the theoretical model, exploratory factor analysis was used to identify the reasons for the poor fitting results.

Typically, the goal of EFA is to let the data determine the interrelationships among a set of variables. Although a researcher using EFA may have a theory relating the variables to one another, there are relatively few restrictions on the basic factor model in an EFA. First, the EFA is useful in data reduction when interrelationships among variables are not specified beforehand. A second benefit of EFA is the ability to detect a general factor. Thirdly, EFA is particularly useful in scale or test development because it allows the researcher to determine the dimensionality of the test and detect cross-loadings (correlations of variables with more than one factor (Fletcher, 2007).

Item analysis consists of exploratory factor analysis, as well as reliability analysis. An item analysis was conducted on the scales that were used for data gathering. The purpose of item analysis was twofold, namely to determine acceptable factor loadings, and to investigate reliability and inter-item correlations. In determining acceptable factor loadings the general rule used is that items have to have a loading of $\geq$ .3 to be accepted (Hair et al., 2006). In the event of a two-factor (or more) structure, items are also analysed for possible cross-loadings. In the case of the latter, items may be removed to provide a simple structure.

The purpose of investigating reliability and inter-item correlations is to ascertain which of the items in a scale, if any, have a negative effect on the overall reliability of the scale due to their inclusion in the particular scale. If a significant improvement in overall scale reliability occurs as a result of excluding a particular item, such item is also excluded from the subsequent factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis is conducted when there are no explicit expectations regarding the number and nature of the underlying factors in each of the constructs (Hair et al., 2006).

In order to conduct exploratory factor analysis on the identified variables in question, the following steps are proposed (Field, 2005; Grimm & Yarnold, 1995; Hair et al., 2006; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000): (a) deciding which method of extraction should be used to extract the factors, (b) identifying the most appropriate method of rotating the factors, (c) determining how many factors can be extracted, and (d) determining how factor scores must be computed if factor scores are of interest.

3.4.8.1 Determining the number of factors to be extracted.

Before determining how many factors can be extracted, it is important to first determine if the identified construct can be factor analysed. This was done by calculating both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity.

The KMO can be calculated for individual and multiple variables and represents the ratio of the squared correlation between variables to the squared partial correlation between variables. The KMO statistic varies between 0 and 1. A value of 0 indicates that the sum of partial correlations is large relative to the sum of correlations, indicating diffusion in the pattern of correlations, thereby deeming factor analysis inappropriate. A value close to 1 indicates that patterns of correlations are relatively compact and therefore factor analysis should present distinct and reliable factors. The cut-off value that will be utilised in this study is .6 (Hair et al., 2006).

Another method of determining the appropriateness of factor analysis examines the entire correlation matrix. The Bartlett test of sphericity is one such measure as it is a test for the presence of correlations among the variables. It examines the correlations among all variables and assesses whether, collectively, significant intercorrelations exists (Hair et al., 2006). Significance is measured at the .05 level.

The factor analysis method employed to extract factors in the present research study was principal components analysis. Principle components analysis considers the total variance and derives factors that contain small proportions of unique variance and, in some instances, error variance. However, the first few factors do not contain enough unique or error variance to distort the overall factor structure. Specifically, with

component analysis, unities are inserted in the diagonal of the correlation matrix, so that the full variance is brought into the factor matrix (Hair et al., 2006).

Rather than arbitrarily constraining the factor rotation to an orthogonal solution, the oblique rotation identifies the extent to which each of the factors are correlated. The oblique rotation assumes that the extracted factors are correlated (Hair et al., 2006). This method is deemed suitable "if the ultimate goal of the factor analysis is to obtain several theoretically meaningful factors or constructs" (Hair et al., 2006, p. 110). Conclusions drawn from this method are restricted to the sample collected and generalisation of the results can be achieved only if analysis using different samples reveals the same factor structure (Field, 2005).

In deciding whether a factor in the factor analysis is statistically important enough to extract from the data for interpretation purposes, the decision is made on the eigenvalue associated with the factor. The eigenvalue (or Kaiser's criterion) is based on the idea of retaining factors with associated eigenvalues greater than 1. The scree plot is consulted in the decision of extraction by looking at the point of inflection of the curve. However, previous research has identified parallel analysis as a more accurate method of estimating the number of factors to be extracted (Fletcher, 2007).

The following section focuses on the parallel analysis method of estimating the number of factors to be extracted that was utilised in this study.

3.4.8.2 Parallel analysis.

Parallel analysis involves comparing eigenvalues obtained from the data with eigenvalues that would be expected from random data with an equivalent number of variables and equivalent sample size. The number of factors retained is equivalent to the number of eigenvalues expected from the random data (Fletcher, 2007).

For example, when focussing on the transformational leadership component of the MLQ, if the original data set consists of 220 observations, then a series of random data matrices of this size (220 x 20) would be generated, and eigenvalues would be

computed for the correlation matrices for the original data and for each of the original data sets. The reason for the 20 items is that transformational leadership component consists of 20 items. The eigenvalues derived from the actual data are then compared to the eigenvalues derived from the random data. In Horn's (1965) original description of this procedure, the mean eigenvalues from the random data served as the comparison baseline, whereas a currently recommended practice is to use eigenvalues that correspond to the desired percentile (typically the 95th) of the distribution of random data eigen values (Cota, Longman, Holden, Fekken, & Xinaris, 1993; Glorfeld, 1995. Factors or components are retained as long as the *i*th eigenvalue from the actual data is greater than the *i*th eigenvalue from the random data.

3.4.9 Outcome of Phase 2.

The outcome of the quantitative strand (Phase 2) was to provide evidence of the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments to be used in Phase 3. The results related to the psychometric properties of Phase 2 will be communicated in Chapter 4.

3.5 Research Propositions

In order to answer the research questions developed for this study, thirteen propositions were formulated that will be tested. In accordance with the aim of the study and the findings of previous research, the proposed relationships are believed to exist between the constructs discussed in Chapter 2. These propositions will be evaluated using a variant of the exploratory sequential research design. The reason for this type of design will be explained in detail in Chapter 3.

Kerlinger (1992) posits the importance of defining propositions as speculative statements about the relation between two or more variables, arguing that propositions (a) are the working instruments of theory, (b) can be tested and shown to be probably true or probably false, and (c) are powerful tools for the advancement of knowledge. Kerlinger and Lee (2000) argue that there are two primary criteria for good propositions: (a) proposition statements about the relationships between variables, and (b) propositions carry clear implications for testing the stated relations.

The following propositions will guide the current study in answering the two research questions. Empirical and theoretical support for these propositions was provided in Chapter 2.

Proposition 1:

Transformational leadership is positively related to job resources.

Proposition 2:

Transformational leadership is positively related to a supportive organisational climate.

Proposition 3:

Transformational leadership is positively related to psychological empowerment.

Proposition 4:

Past leadership is positively related to psychological empowerment.

Proposition 5:

Job resources are positively related to a supportive organisational climate.

Proposition 6:

Job resources are positively related to psychological empowerment.

Proposition 7:

Past job resources are positively related to psychological empowerment.

Proposition 8:

Supportive organisational climate is positively related to psychological empowerment.

Proposition 9:

Psychological empowerment is positively related to psychological capital (PsyCap).

Proposition 10:

Psychological Capital (PsyCap) is positively related to subjective career success.

Proposition 11:

Objective career success (current) is positively related to subjective career success.

Proposition 12:

Objective career success (past) is positively related to subjective career success.

Proposition 13 will follow in section 3.6.4.6.1 of this chapter.

3.6 Quantitative Strand (Phase 3)

3.6.1 Survey research design.

During the discussion of an appropriate research design for the Quantitative Strand (Phase 2), it was argued for a survey research design. The rationale as well as the benefits associated with that design was also then discussed. Given the fact that Phase 3 of the current study is also quantitative in nature, a similar research design is called for. In addition, it is clear that a survey research design is the most appropriate to provide answers to the various research propositions stated in the previous section.

The quantitative research design enables the empirical collection of the data from a large sample of respondents. In addition to empirical evidence obtained, the research design must also enable the statistical evaluation and statistical modelling of these identified constructs. This is primarily done by using statistical modelling studies. Statistical modelling studies must also make possible the evaluation of a theoretical model's ability to predict the dependent variable, as well as to confirm a theory. It can therefore be suggested that a combination of a survey and a statistical modelling study (Babbie, 1998; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000; Mouton, 2001; Newman, 1997) is an appropriate research design to evaluate the propositions discussed in the previous section.

Referring to Figure 2.1, it is clear that the current study required the observance of independent and dependent variables across individuals to establish the extent to which they co-vary. This approach offers strong support to the structural equations modelling theory that is used to (a) evaluate the applicability of theories exploring sequential relationships between two or more variables that have been studied in a correlational research design and to (b) determine the combination of variables that predict a particular variable (Kerlinger, 1992).

3.6.2 Sampling design.

During the discussion of an appropriate sampling design for the Quantitative Strand (Phase 2), it was argued that the total population be used as the sample. The rationale was also discussed. It should be noted that the main purpose of Quantitative Strand (Phase 2) was to pilot-test a composite instrument. A different sample is required for the Quantitative Strand (Phase 3). Hence, a new sample - excluding the 220 respondents from the Quantitative Strand (Phase 2) - was used in the Quantitative Strand (Phase 3).

In short, the information provided on the sampling design during the Quantitative Strand (Phase 2) is applied *mutatis mutandis* to the Quantitative Strand (Phase 3).

3.6.2.1 Sample characteristics.

During the quantitative strand (Phase 3), 418 usable questionnaires were obtained.

The characteristics of the sample of respondents who participated in the Main Study (Phase 3) are described in this section. The biographical characteristics are provided in the tables below in terms of the following variables:

The following table reports on the distribution of race by gender in the current sample:

Table 3.26
Frequency Distribution: Race by Gender (Phase 3)

Race	Female/ (% Total)	Male/ (%Total)
African	71 (17%)	119 (28%)
Coloured	78 (19%)	78 (19%)
Indian	20 (5%)	50 (12%)
Other	2 (0%)	0 (0%)

The majority of respondents were African males (28%) followed by coloured females (19%) and coloured males (19%).

The following table reports on the age distribution in the current sample:

Table 3.27

Frequency Distribution: Age (Phase 3)

Age Category (Years)	Number of Respondents/(%Total)
18-30	83 (20%)
31-40	184 (44%)
41-50	103 (25%)
51-60	44 (11%)
61-65	4 (1%)

It is evident that the majority of respondents (44%) were in the 31-40 year age group.

The following table reports on the home language of respondents in the current sample:

Table 3.28

Frequency Distribution: Home Language (Phase 3)

Home Language	Number of Respondents/(% Total)
English	163 (39%)
Xhosa	31 (7%)
Afrikaans	74 (18%)
Venda	5 (1%)
Zulu	51 (12%)
Ndebele	2 (0%)
South Sotho	28 (7%)
North Sotho	25 (6%)
Tsonga	8 (2%)
Tswana	22 (5%)
Swazi	7 (2%)
Other	2 (0%)

It is clear that English is the home language of the majority of respondents (39%) in the current sample.

The following table reports on the highest qualification obtained by the respondents in the current sample:

Table 3.29

Frequency Distribution: Highest Qualification (Phase 3)

Highest Qualification Obtained	Number of Respondents/(% Total)
Grade 12 or Equivalent	83 (20%)
Post High School Certificate	40 (10%)
Diploma	140 (33%)
Bachelors Degree	91 (22%)
Honours Degree	37 (9%)
Masters Degree	24 (6%)
Doctoral Degree	3 (1%)
Post-Doctoral Degree	0 (0%)

The majority of respondents obtained a diploma (33%), followed by 22% of the respondents who obtained a Bachelors degree.

The following table reports on the distribution of tenure in their current and previous position in the current sample.

Table 3.30

Frequency Distribution: Tenure in Current and Previous Position (Phase 3)

Tenure in (Years)	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Current position	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Previous position
0-5	306 (73%)	275 (66%)
6-10	69 (17%)	84 (20%)
11-15	18 (4%)	31 (7%)
16-20	14 (3%)	16 (4%)
21-25	6 (1%)	9 (2%)
26-30	2 (0%)	1 (1%)
31-35	3 (1%)	2 (0%)

It is clear that the majority of respondents (73%) were in their current positions between 0 and 5 years. The majority of respondents (66%) were in their previous positions between 0 and 5 years, as highlighted by the above table.

The following table reports on the current and previous occupational level held by respondents in the current sample.

Table 3.31

Frequency Distribution: Occupational Level in Current and Previous Position (Phase 3)

Occupational Level	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Current position	Number of Respondents/(%Total) Previous position
Top Management (Director)	3 (1%)	3 (1%)
Senior Management	54 (13%)	32 (8%)
Middle Management	114 (27%)	96 (23%)
Junior Management	70 (17%)	76 (18%)
Supervisor/Foreman	26 (6%)	42 (10%)
Employee (Non-Supervisor/Manager)	151 (36%)	169 (40%)

It is apparent that the majority of the respondents (36%) found themselves in non-supervisory/managerial positions followed my middle management (27%) in their current position. It is clear that the majority of the respondents (40%) found themselves in non-supervisory/managerial positions in their previous position.

3.6.3 Data collection technique.

During the discussion of Quantitative Strand (Phase 2) an overview was provided of the procedure used to collect the data via electronic means, as well as information related to each of the ten measuring instruments (related to the constructs).

3.6.4 Data analysis techniques.

The choice of data analysis technique is dependent on the type of research questions the study is aiming to answer. As previously stated, this study's research questions are guided by several propositions. In general, data analysis techniques focus on relationships, significance of group membership, and structure (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 2006).

The following sections elaborate on the various data analysis techniques that were employed to test the various propositions. These include reliability analysis,

confirmatory factor analysis, Pearson product-moment correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis, and structural equation modelling (e.g. partial least squares path modelling).

3.6.4.1 Reliability analysis.

Before any of the propositions can be tested, the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments need to be determined. These properties were investigated in relation to their reliability.

3.6.4.2 Confirmatory factor analysis.

In addition to determining the reliability of each of the constructs, confirmatory factor analysis was used to validate the factor structures in Phase 2 in a new independent sample.

3.6.4.3 Determining the degree of relationship between variables.

In Chapter 2, twelve research propositions (1-12) were identified suggesting statistical analysis techniques that can determine the relationships among the measured constructs.

Two of the most appropriate data analysis techniques that could be employed in evaluating the first twelve research propositions (1-12) are bivariate *r* and multiple *R* (Field, 2005; Hair et al., 2006; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Both of these techniques are discussed below.

3.6.4.4 Correlation (Bivariate r).

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is a standardised measure of the strength of the relationship between variables. It can take any value from -1 (as one variable changes, the other changes in the opposite direction by the same amount), through 0 (as one variable changes the other doesn't change at all), to +1 (as one variable changes, the other changes in the same direction by the same amount) (Field, 2005).

3.6.4.5 Magnitude of r (Guilford's informal interpretations).

To evaluate the strength of a statistically significant relationship, it is useful to have a guide to interpret the strength of the identified correlation. Guilford (cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002) provides a useful reference to interpret statistical significant relationships among variables. Thus, although a correlation may be statistically significant, it must still be evaluated in the context of its associated strength and value to the research. Guilford's informal interpretations of the magnitude of *r* are presented in the table below.

Table 3.32

Guilford's Informal Interpretations of the Magnitude of r

Value of *r* (+ or -)	Informal interpretation
<.2	Slight; almost no relationship
.2 – .4	Low correlation; definite but small relationship
.4 – .7	Moderate correlation; substantial relationship
.7 – .9	High correlation; strong relationship
.9 – 1.0	Very high correlation; very dependable relationship

The following section elaborates on a multiple regression analysis (i.e. multiple *R)* to evaluate which independent variables contribute significantly to the variance in the dependent variable.

3.6.4.6 Multiple regression analysis.

Multiple regression analysis, a form of general linear modelling, is a multivariate statistical technique that is used in this study to examine the relationship between a single dependent variable (subjective career success) and set of independent variables. With its broad applicability, multiple regression has been used for many purposes. This application falls broadly within two groups, namely prediction and explanation. Prediction involves the extent to which the regression variate (one or more independent variables) can predict the dependent variable. Explanation examines the magnitude, sign and statistical significance of the regression coefficients (the amount of change in the dependent variable for a one unit change in the independent variable) for each independent variable and attempts to develop a

substantive or theoretical reason for the effects of the independent variables (Hair et al., 2006).

3.6.4.6.1 Stepwise multiple regression.

Proposition 13 below, states that each of the independent variables will explain a significant proportion of the variance in subjective career success. The most appropriate statistical technique to evaluate this proposition is stepwise multiple regression. This technique employs a method of selecting variables to be included in the regression model that begins with selecting the best predictor of the dependent variable. Additional independent variables are chosen on the basis of their incremental explanatory power which they can add to the regression model. Independent variables are added provided their partial correlation coefficients are statistically significant. Independent variables may also be dropped should their predictive power drop to a non-significant level when a further independent variable is added to the regression model (Hair et al., 2011).

Therefore the following proposition is proposed:

Proposition 13: Each of the independent variables will explain a significant proportion of the variance in subjective career success.

The result of the multiple regression analysis for this study will be discussed in Chapter 4. The results of the stepwise multiple regression will assist in predicting the impact of the independent variables on the dependent variable.

The following sections elaborate on structural equation modelling (SEM). More specifically, variance-based and covariance-based structural equation modelling approaches are discussed.

3.6.4.7 Structural equation modelling (SEM).

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a general term that describes a large number of statistical techniques used to evaluate the consistency of substantive theories with empirical data. It represents an extension of general linear modelling procedures such

as analysis of variance and multiple regression. SEM can be used to study the relationship between latent constructs that are indicated by multiple measures and is applicable to experimental or non-experimental data and to cross-sectional or longitudinal data (Salkind, 2007).

There are two approaches to SEM. The first approach emphasises the testing of a theory and is known as covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) (hard-based modelling). In contrast, the second approach to SEM is known as soft modelling which is a variance-based approach to SEM (e.g. partial least squares modelling) (PLS-SEM). The purpose of this soft modelling approach is exploration and prediction (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009).

SEM can examine a series of dependence relationships simultaneously and is therefore particularly useful in testing theories that contain multiple equations involving dependence relationships. SEM estimates a series of separate, but interdependent, multiple regression equations simultaneously by specifying the structural model used by the statistical programme (MacCallum & Austin, 2000).

3.6.4.8 Evaluating the structural component of SEM through Partial Least Squares Modelling (PLS).

In order to evaluate the structural model, it was decided to use the soft modelling approach to SEM, the purpose being exploration and prediction. The soft modelling approach involves the use of Partial Least Squares (PLS) in contrast to the hard modelling approach to SEM, which predominately makes use of maximum likelihood (Henseler et al., 2009).
The rationale for choosing the PLS approach to SEM is presented below.

PLS models are formally defined by two sets of linear equations: the inner model and the outer model. The inner model specifies the relationships between unobserved or latent variables, whereas the outer model specifies the relationships between a latent variable and its observed or manifest variables (Henseler et al., 2009). The outer model in PLS is similar to the measurement model used in the hard-based modelling

approach and the inner model is similar to the structural model used in the hard-based modelling approach.

Partial least squares (PLS), is a family of alternating least squares algorithms, or "prescriptions" which extend principal component and canonical correlation analysis. The method was designed by Wold (1974, 1982, 1985) and has undergone various extensions and modifications. PLS, a variance-based technique, has been used by a growing number of researchers from various disciplines such as strategic management (e.g., Hulland, 1999), management information systems (Dibbern, Goles, Hircschheim, & Jayatilaka, 2004), e-business (Pavlou & Chai, 2002), organisational behaviour (OB) (Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992), marketing (Reinartz, Krafft, & Hoyer, 2004), and consumer behaviour (Fornell & Robinson, 1983).

3.6.4.9 Motivation for using PLS modelling.

The most important motivations for using PLS modelling are exploration and prediction, as PLS path modelling is recommended in an early stage of theoretical development in order to test and validate exploratory models (Henseler et al., 2009. p. 282). An additional powerful feature of PLS path modelling is that it is suitable for prediction-oriented research. Thereby, this methodology assists researchers who focus on the explanation of endogenous constructs (Henseler et al., 2009).

Rather than commit to a specific model *a priori* and frame the statistical analysis as a proposition test, Wold (1982) imagined a researcher estimating numerous models in the course of learning something about the data and about the phenomena underlying the data. Wold (1982) envisaged a discovery-oriented process- a conversation between the researcher and the computer.

The characteristics researchers regard as relevant for the above-mentioned prediction-oriented research can be summarised as follows.

- PLS delivers latent variable scores, i.e. proxies of the constructs, which are measured by one or several indicators (manifest variables).
- PLS path modelling avoids small sample size problems and can therefore be applied in some situations when other methods cannot.

- PLS path modelling can estimate very complex models with many latent and manifest variables (i.e. saturation problem of covariance-based SEM).
- PLS path modelling has less stringent assumptions about the distribution of variables and error terms.
- PLS can handle both reflective and formative models (Henseler et al., 2009).

3.6.4.10 Evaluation of PLS path model results.

PLS path modelling does not provide for any global goodness-of-fit criterion. As a consequence, Chin (1998) has put forward a catalogue of criteria to assess partial model structures. A systematic application of these criteria is a two-step process, encompassing (1) the assessment of the outer model and (2) the assessment of the inner model. Figure 3.1 below depicts the two-step process. At the beginning of the two-step process, model assessment focuses on the measurement models. A systematic evaluation of PLS estimates reveals the measurement model reliability and validity according to certain criteria. It only makes sense to evaluate the inner path model estimates when the calculated latent variable scores show evidence of sufficient reliability and validity.

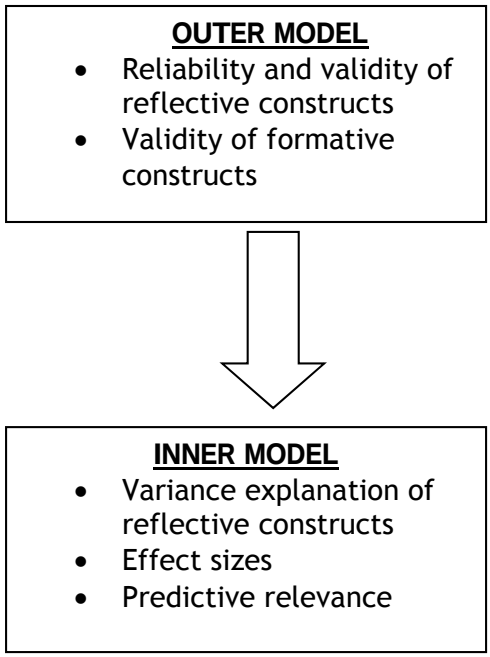

***Figure 3.1*. A two-step process of PLS path model assessment** (Henseler et al., 2009, p. 298)

3.6.4.11 Assessing the PLS outer (measurement) model.

In the following section, the assessment of the PLS outer (measurement) model will be discussed.

3.6.4.11.1 Reliability.

The measurement models should be assessed with regard to their reliability and validity (Henseler et al., 2009). Table 3.33 below provides an overview of the typical criteria (Henseler et al., 2009). Usually, the first criterion that is checked is internal consistency reliability. The traditional criterion for internal consistency is Cronbach's Alpha (Cronbach, 1951), which provides an estimate of reliability based on the indicator intercorrelations. While Cronbach's Alpha assumes that all indicators are equally reliable, PLS prioritises indicators according to their reliability, resulting in a more reliable composite. As Cronbach's Alpha tends to provide a severe underestimation of the internal consistency reliability of latent variables in PLS path models, it is more appropriate to apply a different measure, namely composite reliability (ρ_c) (Werts, Linn, & Jöreskog, 1974).

The composite reliability takes into account that indicators have different loadings, and can be interpreted in the same way as Cronbach's Alpha. No matter which particular reliability coefficient is used, an internal consistency reliability value above .7 in the early stages of research and values above .8 or .9 in more advanced stages of research, are considered satisfactory (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), whereas a value below .6 indicates room for improvement.

3.6.4.11.2 Validity.

Convergent validity signifies that a set of indicators represents one and the same underlying construct, which can be demonstrated through their unidimensionality. Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggest using the average variance extracted (AVE) as a criterion of convergent validity. An AVE value of at least .5 indicates sufficient convergent validity, meaning that the latent variable is able to explain more than half of the variance of its indicators on average (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2009).

Table 3.33

Assessing the PLS Outer Model (Measurement Model)

Criterion	Description
Composite Reliability	The composite reliability is a measure of internal consistency and must not be lower than .6
Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	The average variance extracted should be higher than .5

The following section outlines the assessment criteria for the PLS Structural (Inner) Model.

3.6.4.12 Assessing the PLS inner (structural) model.

Unlike CB-SEM**,** the PLS-SEM does not optimise a unique global scalar function. Fit statistics for CB-SEM are derived from the discrepancy between the empirical and model-implied (theoretical) covariance matrix, whereas PLS-SEM focuses on the discrepancy between the observed (in the case of manifest variables) or approximated (in the case of latent variables) values of the dependent variables, and the values predicted by the model in question. As a consequence, researchers using PLS-SEM rely on measures indicating a model's predictive capabilities to judge the model's quality (Hair, Sarstedt, Pieper, & Ringle, 2012).

Reliable and valid outer model estimations permit an evaluation of the inner path model estimates. Table 3.34 provides an overview of the typical criteria. The essential criterion for this assessment is the coefficient of determination (R^2) of the endogenous latent variables. Chin (1998) describes R^2 values of .67, .33, and .19 in PLS path models as substantial, moderate and weak, respectively.

Table 3.34

Assessing the PLS Inner Model (Structural Model)

Criterion	Description
R^2 of endogenous latent variables	R^2 values of .67, .33, or .19 for endogenous latent variables are described as substantial, moderate, or weak by Chin (1998, p. 323).
Estimates for path coefficients	The estimated values for path relationships in the structural model should be evaluated in terms of sign, magnitude, and significance (the latter via bootstrapping).

The individual path coefficients of the PLS structural model can be interpreted as standardised beta coefficients of ordinary least squares regressions (Henseler et al., 2009). In order to determine the confidence intervals of the path coefficients and statistical inference, resampling techniques such as bootstrapping should be used (Tenenhaus, Esposito Vinzi, Chatelin, & Lauro, 2005).

3.6.4.13 Bootstrapping.

The nonparametric bootstrap (Davison & Hinkley, 2003; Efron & Tibshirani, 1993) procedure was used in PLS path modelling to provide confidence intervals for all parameter estimates, (also indicates significance) building the basis for statistical inference. Generally, the bootstrap technique provides an estimate of the shape, spread, and bias of the sampling distribution of a specific statistic. Bootstrapping treats the observed sample as if it represents the population. The PLS results for all bootstrap samples provide the mean value and standard error for each path model coefficient. This information permits a student's *t*-test to be performed for the significance of the path model relationships. Chin (1998) proposes using the following test statistic for PLS:

$$t_{emp} = w / se(w)$$

whereby t_{emp} represents the empirical *t*-value, w the original PLS estimate of a certain path coefficient, and *se* (*w*) its bootstrapping standard error. If a confidence

interval for an estimated path coefficient *w* does not include zero, the hypothesis that w equals zero is rejected.

3.6.5 Complementary nature of variance-based SEM and covariance-based SEM.

The current researcher decided to use covariance-based structural equation modelling (CBSEM) to compliment the results obtained from the variance-based approach (PLS-SEM). Although the study maintains that the emphasis is on exploration and prediction, subjecting the variance-based structural model to stringent quality criteria (goodness-of-fit statistics) may be useful. In addition covariance-based structural equations modelling also provides modification indices which may suggest additional paths which may result in a better fitting model. Although modification indices may be useful in providing statistical reasons for additional paths, it is important that these proposed paths can be explained by supporting theory. It is therefore possible to use covariance-based SEM to confirm the theoretical model obtained via exploratory means (i.e. variance-based SEM) (Henseler, et al., 2009).

The following section provides additional information on modification indices and goodness-of-fit statistics to be used for model comparison.

3.6.5.1 Modification indices.

According to Raykov and Marcoulides (2006), the indices that can be used as diagnostic statistics about which parameters could be changed are called modification indices - a term used in the LISREL (Linear Structural Relationships) program. The value of the modification index (the term is used generically), indicates approximately how much a proposed model's chi-square would decrease if a particular parameter was freed from a constraint as proposed in the immediately preceding modelling session. The modification indices address the question of how to improve an initially specified model that does not satisfactorily fit the data. No strict rule-of-thumb exists concerning how large these indices must be to warrant a meaningful model re-specification. However, one might consider making changes to parameters associated with the highest modification indices. When LISREL is used, modification indices larger than 5, generally merit close consideration (Raykov &

Marcoulides, 2006). The latter authors advise that model re-specification is only advisable when it is theoretically sound (i.e. feasible) and not contradictory to previous research.

3.6.5.2 Akaike information criterion (AIC).

The AIC is a special type of fit index that takes into account both the measure of fit and model complexity (Akaike, as cited in Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006), and resembles the so-called Bayesian information criterion (BIC). The AIC has become quite popular in SEM and latent variable modelling applications, particularly for the purpose of examining competing models, that is, when a researcher is considering several models and wishes to select from them the one with best fit. According to these indices, models associated with smaller values are preferred to models with higher values (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006).

In summary, both CBSEM and VBSEM, provide a powerful framework for estimating theoretical models with latent variables and systems of simultaneous equations. CBSEM and PLS path modelling, constitute two complementary, yet distinctive statistical techniques for estimating parameters of conceptual models. PLS is based on least squares estimation with the primary objective being to maximize the explanation of variance in a structural equation model's dependent constructs (Henseler et al., 2009).

Taking into consideration the above two perspectives, the current researcher agrees with Henseler and his colleagues (2009) that CBSEM and VBSEM can be used in a complementary fashion, rather than competing with each other. The current study also concurs with Jöreskog and Wold (1982) that CBSEM complements VBSEM in that the evaluation of theory-orientated models should transition from exploratory to confirmatory analysis. Hence, the quality criteria used to evaluate the exploratory model can be complemented by the quality criteria applicable to a confirmatory model.

3.7 Summary

In this chapter, an overview of the methodology used for this study was provided. The methodology included qualitative, survey and statistical modelling research. The measuring instruments and their psychometric properties were discussed.

The techniques used for data analysis, including reliability, confirmatory factor analysis, exploratory factor analysis, correlation analysis, and multiple regression analysis was also discussed. The chapter also provided support for the use of structural equation modelling, in particular partial least squares path modelling. The latter is used in evaluating the theoretical model depicting the relationships between the constructs that are investigated in this study.

The results of the current study will be presented in Chapter 4. Emphasis will be placed on evaluating the factor structure of each of the measured constructs, statistically describing the correlations between the measured constructs (emphasising Pearson's r), statistically exploring and confirming the conceptual model of relationships between the constructs combining both variance-based and covariance-based approaches to structural equations modelling, as well as statistically predicting subjective career success.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The research questions and the propositions stated in Chapter 1 and 2, as well as the qualitative and quantitative results are presented in this chapter.

The first section of the chapter reports on the results of the qualitative content analysis (Phase 1). On the basis of these results, some minor changes were made to the content of the instruments which were implemented accordingly in Phase 2 (Instrument Development and Pilot Phase). Results related to the latter are also reported. More specifically information related to the psychometric properties (i.e. reliability, and factor structures) is highlighted. All of the results from Phase 2 are based on a sample size of 220 respondents.

Obtaining a different sample of 418 new respondents formed the basis of the Main Study (Phase 3). In addition to reporting the results related to the psychometric properties of the various constructs in this sample, the relationships between the constructs (as anticipated in the theoretical model) are also presented.

In the following section, the results of the qualitative content analysis are presented.

4.2 Qualitative Research Results (Phase 1)

In line with the inductive nature of content analysis, higher-order themes were extracted from the data, taking into consideration the existing body of knowledge. In addition, (lower order) themes were identified, including the related frequency of comments per theme. As referred to in Chapter 3, the primary purpose of the qualitative research analysis was merely to seek (a) confirmation that the instruments/constructs utilised cover relevant issues that are seen as important, as well as (b) establish whether there were themes that were not adequately covered by the selected instruments.

The following three tables present the summaries of the themes elicited from the 30 qualitative interviews conducted at the three companies selected for the current

study (i.e. 10 interviews were conducted per company). Table 4.1 reflects the frequency of both positive and negative comments related to the role of leadership.

Table 4.1

Themes, Frequencies and Interview Comments related to Leadership

Themes	Frequency Positive comments	Frequency Negative comments	Examples of Interview Comments
Autonomy	23	3	**Positive comments** *"I have the ability to work autonomously…being self-accountable and not being micro-managed".* **Negative comments** *"My manager continuously looks over my shoulder".*
Builds trust	13	1	**Positive comments** *"My manager has trust and confidence in my capabilities".* **Negative comments** *"I am not fully trusted with my task".*
Builds respect	6	0	**Positive comments** *"My leader shows respectful conduct…never screams".*
Coaching and mentoring	4	1	**Positive comments** *"I have the opportunity to be coached…I also get support from mentors".* **Negative comments** *"There is a lack of coaching and mentoring in the Company".*
Supportive behaviour	24	3	**Positive comments** *"I have supportive conversations with my supervisor".* **Negative comments** *"Lack of enthusiasm from my leader… and stops my fire".*
Facilitates growth and development	10	6	**Positive comments** *"My manager assists me to be personally responsible for my growth".* **Negative comments** *"No opportunities are given by my supervisor".*

Table 4.1 (continued).

Themes, Frequencies and Interview Comments related to Leadership

Themes	Frequency Positive comments	Frequency Negative comments	Examples of Interview Comments
Provides feedback	10	0	**Positive comments** *"My department head gives me positive feedback and honesty".*
Creates vision	1	0	**Positive comments** *"Leader provides vision of bigger picture".*
Personal regard	12	0	**Positive comments** *"My manager treats me as an individual and understands me".*
Engagement	33	3	**Positive comments** *"I have a helpful leader who gets involved".* **Negative comments** *"My manager does not include me in the process…feel disempowered".*
Communication	6	11	**Positive comments** *"My manager communicates with the team".* **Negative comments** *"Leader is a reluctant communicator".*
Participative practices	4	1	**Positive comments** *"We are included in decision-making discussions".* **Negative comments** *"Supervisor asks for suggestions but does not implement them".*
Provides technology	3	1	**Positive comments** *"We have the latest technology".* **Negative comments** *"We are given old technology to work on".*
Cultural sensitivity	1	1	**Positive comments** *"Diversity is encouraged…there is respect for diversity".* **Negative comments** *"There is no respect or support for diversity".*

It is evident that the choice of instrument for the current study, that is the adapted version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Engelbrecht & Chamberlain, 2005; Krafft et al., 2004), originally developed by Bass (1985) and later revised by Bass and Avolio (1994), covers roughly the same thematic content as the themes extracted from the interviews. It was therefore not necessary to supplement the instrument with additional items.

The following table includes a summary of the themes, higher-order themes, and the frequency of both positive and negative comments related to job resources.

Table 4.2

Higher-order Themes, Themes, Frequencies and Interview Comments related to Job Resources

Higher-order theme	Themes	Frequency Positive comments	Frequency Negative comments	Examples of Interview Comments
Leadership	Active career support	93	28	**Positive comments** *"I have open and frank discussions with my manager about career opportunities".* **Negative comments** *"Leaders don't grow people for positions…there are no support structures".*
	Feedback	5	3	**Positive comments** *"We have many de-briefing feedback sessions".* **Negative comments** *"I get slow feedback from my manager".*
	Autonomy	18	2	**Positive comments** *"My manager gives me great autonomy".* **Negative comments** *"We have lack of autonomy due to centralised control".*

Table 4.2 (continued).

Higher-order Themes, Themes, Frequency and Interview Comments related to Job Resources

Higher-order theme	Themes	Frequency Positive comments	Frequency Negative comments	Examples of Interview Comments
Colleagues	Support	26	3	**Positive comments** *"I have supportive and encouraging colleagues".* **Negative comments** *"My working relationships with my colleagues are not good…limited support".*
	Teamwork	14	2	**Positive comments** *"We do things as a collective".* **Negative comments** *"We don't operate as a team".*
Organisational Structure	Organisational structure	1	45	**Positive comments** *"New structures with mergers and acquisitions create new opportunities... division is growing…can see new opportunities".* **Negative comments** *"The structural set-up is limiting… no growth opportunities in the department".*
Growth and Development	Training and development opportunities	94	16	**Positive comments** *"I have opportunities to attend training programmes".* **Negative comments** *"There is limited attendance of courses and programmes".*
	Opportunity to study	12	3	**Positive comments** *"We have the opportunity for study bursaries".* **Negative comments** *"There is a lack of bursaries to study".*

Table 4.2 (continued).

Higher-order Themes, Themes, Frequencies and Interview Comments related to Job Resources

Higher-order theme	Themes	Frequency Positive comments	Frequency Negative comments	Examples of Interview Comments
	Networking opportunities	12	1	**Positive comments** *"I have the opportunity to meet higher level people".* **Negative comments** *"You won't be successful if you are not networked".*
	Coaching and mentoring	19	5	**Positive comments** *"I have the opportunity for mentorship… people are not afraid to share knowledge and be helpful".* **Negative comments** *"There is no grooming".*
Access to technology	Access to technology	9	16	**Positive comments** *"We have good resources…the computer equipment is of the latest technology".* **Negative comments** *"Limited technology in our company".*

Given the above-mentioned higher-order themes and themes extracted from the qualitative research interviews, it is evident that the choice of instrument, namely the adapted version of the Job Demands-Resources Scale (JDRS) (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005) covers relatively the same content as those themes extracted from the interviews. However, three additional/new themes were identified from the interviews and subsequently included in the job resources questionnaire used in Phase 2 and Phase 3 of the study. Specifically, one item for "advancement", namely "Do you think the organisational structure of your company provides sufficient opportunities for career development?", plus two items for "organisational support", namely "Do you think your company provides you with access to the latest technology in order to facilitate optimal performance?", and "Do you think your immediate supervisor/manager actively supports your career development?".

The following table includes a summary of the higher-order themes, themes, and the frequency of both positive and negative comments related to supportive organisational climate.

Table 4.3

Higher-order Themes, Themes, Frequencies and Interview Comments related to Supportive Organisational Climate

Higher-order theme	Theme	Frequency Positive comments	Frequency Negative comments	Examples of Interview Comments
Leadership	Support from leadership	14	13	**Positive comments** *"My manager stands up for me".* **Negative comments** *"Leadership do not care about the well-being of employees".*
	Communication	5	0	**Positive comments** *"We have good cross-functional communication".*
Colleagues	Support from colleagues	43	4	**Positive comments** *"My colleagues are people I can count on".* **Negative comments** *"People stick to themselves".*
	Teamwork	4	1	**Positive comments** *"The team is willing to assist each other…we share great excitement about the future".* **Negative comments** *"There is a lack of cohesion at a social and personal level…people stick to themselves".*
Cultural Sensitivity	Diversity awareness	8	21	**Positive comments** *"Diversity is encouraged…there is respect for diversity".* **Negative comments** *"There is groupthink…people are afraid to explore outside their culture".*
Work climate	"Feeling in the air"	27	13	**Positive comments** *"There is a nice atmosphere… everyone works hard and plays hard".* **Negative comments** *"There is a serious atmosphere… you can't joke".*

Given the above-mentioned higher-order themes and themes extracted from the qualitative research interviews, it is evident that the choice of instrument, namely,

the Supportive Organisational Climate Questionnaire (Rogg et al., 2001) largely covers almost the same thematic content as the themes extracted from the interviews.

However, two new additional items related to a supportive organisational climate, related to *"cultural sensitivity"*, were added for Phase 2 and Phase 3 of the study. Specifically, "My immediate supervisor/manager is sensitive to cultural differences" and "Employees feel welcome in the company, despite cultural differences".

Although there may be an overlap in some of the higher-order themes of both the job resources and supportive organisational climate variables, it is important to note that emphasis is placed on the themes that emerged.

Moreover, a critic may reason that the instruments used for the given study are American-based, however, the results of the qualitative research confirm that similar themes have emerged as those included in the instruments, hence confirming the appropriateness of the instruments chosen for the current study in the South African work environment.

In the following section, the Quantitative Results: Psychometric Properties for the Instrument Development/and Pilot Phase (Phase 2) are presented.

4.3 Quantitative Research Results: Psychometric Properties: Instrument Development Phase/and Pilot Phase (Phase 2)

The purpose of Phase 2 is to evaluate the quality of the instruments used to measure the constructs. Item analyses (including reliability coefficients), goodness-of–fit statistics (associated with confirmatory factor analysis), and exploratory factor analysis results are reported in separate tables in the following section.

4.3.1 Item Analysis: Transformational leadership (n=220).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the four dimensions (idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualised consideration) associated with the original factor structure of the

transformational leadership construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the idealised influence dimension are reported below.

Table 4.4

Item Analysis for Idealised Influence (Original Structure) (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
tlc_1	28.66	64.73	8.04	.74	.89
tlc_3	29.11	69.55	8.34	.52	.91
tlc_6	28.97	64.47	8.02	.68	.89
tlc_8	28.86	64.29	8.01	.75	.89
tlc_10	28.95	62.80	7.92	.77	.89
tlc_12	28.76	64.09	8.00	.75	.89
tlc_13	28.52	68.66	8.28	.59	.90
tlc_19	28.99	62.94	7.93	.79	.88

The 8 items measuring idealised influence have an overall reliability coefficient of .90. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .56. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the intellectual stimulation dimension are reported below.

Table 4.5

Item Analysis for Intellectual Stimulation (Original Structure) (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
tlc_2	11.58	14.89	3.85	.62	.83
tlc_4	11.69	14.67	3.83	.64	.83
tlc_16	11.76	12.99	3.60	.78	.76
tlc_18	11.82	12.76	3.57	.71	.80

The 4 items measuring intellectual stimulation have an overall reliability coefficient of .85. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .59. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the inspirational motivation dimension are reported below.

Table 4.6

Item Analysis for Inspirational Motivation (Original Structure) (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
tlc_5	12.65	14.64	3.82	.69	.88
tlc_7	12.19	15.37	3.92	.76	.85
tlc_14	12.66	14.15	3.76	.79	.83
tlc_20	12.33	14.23	3.77	.77	.84

The 4 items measuring inspirational motivation have an overall reliability coefficient of .88. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .67. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the individualised consideration dimension are reported below.

Table 4.7

Item Analysis for Individualised Consideration (Original Structure) (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
tlc_9	11.68	17.17	4.14	.67	.81
tlc_11	11.09	17.81	4.22	.64	.82
tlc_15	11.53	17.04	4.12	.68	.80
tlc_17	11.67	15.55	3.94	.73	.78

The 4 items measuring individualised consideration have an overall reliability coefficient of .84. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .58. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are reported in the table below.

Table 4.8

Summary of Item Analysis for Transformational Leadership (Original Structure) (n=220)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Idealised Influence	32.98	.56	.90
Inspirational Motivation	16.61	.67	.88
Intellectual Stimulation	15.62	.59	.85
Individualised Consideration	15.32	.58	.84

It is clear from the above table that the four dimensions of the transformational leadership measure (original structure) have acceptable levels of reliability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.3.2 Goodness-of-fit statistics: Transformational leadership (Original Structure) (n= 220).

The fit indices associated with the original structure (four-factor structure) of transformational leadership are presented in the following table.

Table 4.9

Fit Indices for Transformational Leadership (Original Structure) (n=220)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Transformational leadership (Original Structure)	649.13	164	.12 (.11; .13)	.05	.95	.96

It is clear that the majority of the fit indices (e.g. SRMR, NFI, and CFI) provide evidence of acceptable fit. The RMSEA value is, however, above the acceptable level of between .08 and .10 (Hair et al., 2006).

In order to identify the possible reasons for the poor fit associated with RMSEA, exploratory factor analysis was conducted to identify a more appropriate factor structure. On the basis of parallel analysis (Horn, 1965), the scree plot below suggests a single-factor structure to be associated with transformational leadership. Hence a second measurement model, representing the unidimensional factor structure associated with transformational leadership, was also investigated.

4.3.3 EFA of the construct transformational leadership as measured by the MLQ.

The following section reports on the results regarding the alternative factor structure (unidimensional) of the instrument that was used to measure the construct transformational leadership applicable to the current sample.

The KMO index and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were calculated and yielded values of .96 and a chi-square value of 3648.4 (*df*= 190, p= 0.000) respectively. This was regarded as proof that exploratory factor analysis (EFA) could be carried out on the responses to the MLQ (Field, 2005).

Results obtained through parallel analysis (Horn, 1965) resulted in the evaluation of a single factor. These results are presented in the following section. A graphical presentation of parallel analysis can be seen in Figure 4.1.

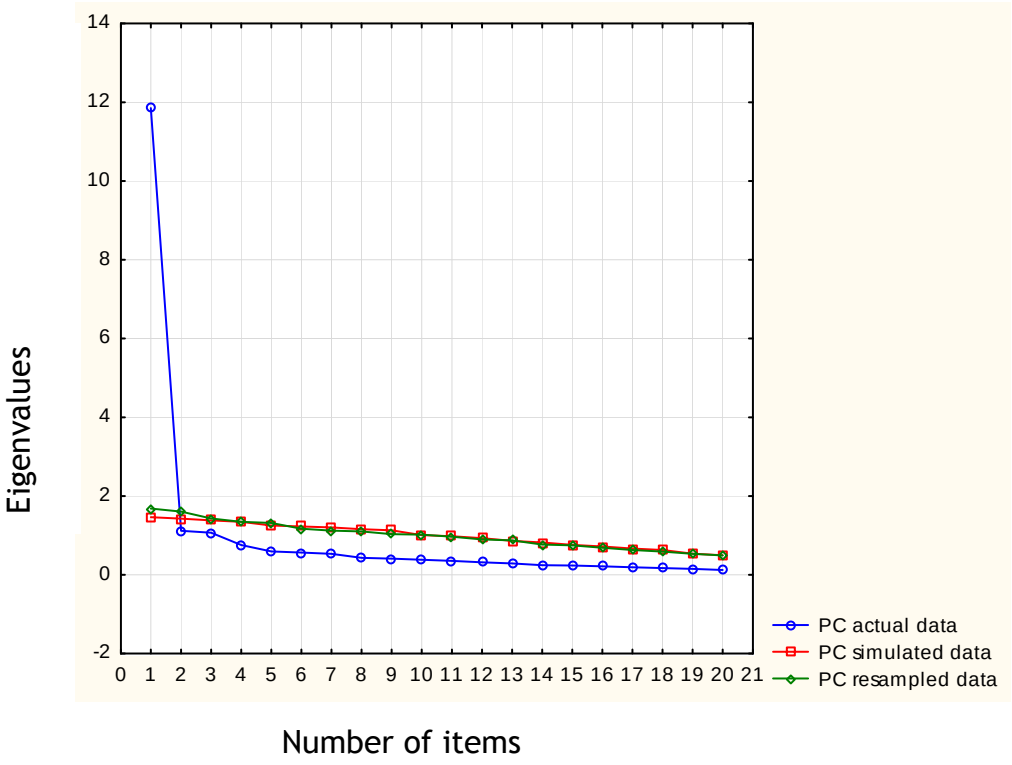

Figure 4.1. **Scree plot: Transformational leadership as measured by the MLQ**

The procedure followed to conduct parallel analysis was described in Chapter 3. In summary, the eigenvalues obtained from the random data set is compared to the eigenvalues obtained from the original data set. From the above scree plot it is clear that there is only one possible factor to be extracted when comparing the eigenvalues from both the random dataset and the observed dataset. On the basis of this latter result, exploratory factor analysis was conducted on a unidimensional solution to the MLQ. All 20 items were retained for the analysis.

The factor loadings associated with the unidimensional solution of transformational leadership are reported in the table below.

Table 4.10

Factor Loadings: Transformational Leadership (Unidimensional Solution) (n=220)

Items	Factor 1
tlc_1	.79567
tlc_2	.67443
tlc_3	.58414
tlc_4	.70178
tlc_5	.74148
tlc_6	.72408
tlc_7	.80782
tlc_8	.82723
tlc_9	.79973
tlc_10	.84320
tlc_11	.64779
tlc_12	.78088
tlc_13	.66599
tlc_14	.82344
tlc_15	.69159
tlc_16	.82317
tlc_17	.83323
tlc_18	.84708
tlc_19	.86275
tlc_20	.83889

From Table 4.10 above, it is clear that all the items have significant loadings.

The following table reports on the item analysis related to the unidimensional factor structure associated with transformational leadership.

Table 4.11

Item Analysis for Transformational Leadership (Unidimensional Structure) (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
tlc_1	76.23	471.69	21.71	.77	.96
tlc_2	76.50	481.42	21.94	.64	.96
tlc_3	76.68	485.43	22.03	.55	.96
tlc_4	76.61	479.40	21.89	.67	.96
tlc_5	76.58	472.84	21.74	.70	.96
tlc_6	76.54	472.70	21.74	.69	.96
tlc_7	76.12	475.31	21.80	.77	.96
tlc_8	76.43	469.59	21.67	.80	.96
tlc_9	76.90	466.44	21.59	.77	.96
tlc_10	76.52	465.19	21.56	.81	.95
tlc_11	76.30	478.21	21.86	.61	.96
tlc_12	76.32	471.60	21.71	.75	.96
tlc_13	76.08	482.43	21.96	.62	.96
tlc_14	76.59	469.68	21.67	.79	.96
tlc_15	76.75	473.39	21.75	.66	.96
tlc_16	76.68	469.35	21.66	.79	.96
tlc_17	76.89	459.33	21.43	.80	.96
tlc_18	76.74	463.30	21.52	.82	.95
tlc_19	76.55	465.78	21.58	.83	.95
tlc_20	76.26	468.20	21.63	.80	.96

The 20 items measuring transformational leadership have an overall reliability coefficient of .96. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .57. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

4.3.4 Goodness-of-fit statistics: Transformational leadership (unidimensional structure) (n=220).

The fit indices associated with the unidimensional structure of transformational leadership are presented in the following table.

Table 4.12

Fit Indices for Transformational Leadership (Unidimensional Structure) (n=220)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Transformational leadership (Unidimensional Structure)	441.17	170	.09 (.08; .10)	.06	.97	.98

It is clear that the majority of the fit indices (e.g. SRMR, NFI, and CFI) provide evidence of acceptable fit (Hair et al., 2006). The RMSEA value of .09 is within the acceptable level of between .08 and .10 (Hair et al., 2006).

When comparing the fit indices associated with the two conceptualisations of the transformational leadership construct, it is clear that the unidimensional factor structure provides a slightly better fit to the data. However, due to the fact that the current study employs theory that emphasises the multi-dimensional nature of transformational leadership, the original factor structure will be maintained.

4.3.5 Item analysis: past leadership (n=220).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with past leadership. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

Table 4.13

Item Analysis for Past Leadership (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
tlp_1	13.19	20.03	4.47	.79	.89
tlp_2	13.31	20.11	4.48	.81	.89
tlp_3	13.54	20.73	4.55	.73	.90
tlp_4	13.65	19.89	4.46	.78	.89
tlp_5	13.58	19.76	4.44	.79	.89

The 5 items measuring past leadership have an overall reliability coefficient of .92. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were

deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .69. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

4.3.6 Goodness-of-fit statistics: past leadership (n=220).

The fit indices associated with the past leadership construct is presented in the following table.

Table 4.14

Fit Indices for Past Leadership (n=220)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Past leadership	18	5	.11 (.06; .17)	.03	.99	.99

It is clear that the majority of the fit indices (e.g. SRMR, NFI, and CFI) provide evidence of acceptable fit. The RMSEA value is above the acceptable level of between .08 and .10 (Hair et al., 2006). Due to the small number of items, it is highly unlikely that an identifiable alternative factor structure will be obtained.

In the following section, the item analysis for the three factors associated with job resources scale developed by Jackson and Rothmann (2005) will be presented.

4.3.7 Item analysis: job resources (three-factor structure) (n=220).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the three dimensions (growth opportunities, organisational support, and advancement) associated with the job resources construct (Jackson & Rothmann, (2005). Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the growth opportunities dimension are reported below.

Table 4.15

Item Analysis for Growth Opportunities (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrc_1	20.81	21.60	4.64	.49	.84
jrc_2	20.83	20.70	4.54	.53	.84
jrc_3	21.10	19.12	4.37	.69	.82
jrc_4	20.93	19.49	4.41	.68	.82
jrc_5	20.81	19.89	4.46	.68	.82
jrc_6	20.71	21.17	4.60	.55	.83
jrc_7	20.73	20.95	4.57	.54	.84
jrc_8	20.79	21.12	4.59	.55	.83

The 8 items measuring growth opportunities have an overall reliability coefficient of .85. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .43. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the organisational support dimension are reported below.

Table 4.16

Item Analysis for Organisational Support (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrc_9	64.47	112.88	10.62	.48	.89
jrc_10	64.41	112.07	10.58	.52	.89
jrc_11	63.93	117.37	10.83	.34	.90
jrc_12	64.35	109.80	10.47	.61	.89
jrc_13	64.19	111.911	10.57	.57	.89
jrc_14	64.69	105.96	10.29	.71	.89
jrc_15	64.15	116.19	10.77	.35	.90
jrc_16	64.09	115.44	10.74	.39	.90
jrc_17	64.65	110.22	10.49	.58	.89
jrc_18	64.56	109.73	10.47	.64	.89
jrc_19	64.73	109.86	10.48	.61	.89
jrc_20	64.99	108.17	10.40	.64	.89

Table 4.16 (continued).

Item Analysis for Organisational Support (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrc2_1	64.66	112.20	10.59	.50	.89
jrc2_2	64.89	112.10	10.58	.57	.89
jrc2_3	64.55	114.31	10.69	.41	.90
jrc2_4	64.45	109.77	10.47	.62	.89
jrc2_6	65.56	113.81	10.66	.38	.90
jrc2_7	64.2	115.79	10.76	.34	.90
jrc2_8	64.41	116.68	10.80	.26	.90
jrc2_9	64.49	115.11	10.72	.37	.90
jrc2_10	65.19	111.12	10.54	.51	.89
jrc2_11	64.87	112.51	10.60	.45	.90
jrc2_12	65.02	107.51	10.36	.65	.89

The 23 items measuring organisational support have an overall reliability coefficient of .90. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .29. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a definite but small relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the advancement dimension are reported below.

Table 4.17

Item Analysis for Advancement (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrc2_10	12.49	15.24	3.90	.54	.83
jrc2_13	12.66	15.26	3.90	.59	.82
jrc2_14	12.86	15.08	3.88	.66	.81
jrc2_15	13.10	14.99	3.87	.69	.81
jrc2_16	12.89	14.30	3.78	.74	.80
jrc2_17	12.20	16.22	4.02	.40	.85
jrc2_18	12.75	14.77	3.84	.62	.82

The 7 items measuring advancement have an overall reliability coefficient of .85. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items if they were deleted would substantially increase the overall reliability. The average inter-item correlation is .46. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are reported in the table below.

Table 4.18

Summary of Item Analysis for Job Resources (Three-factor Structure) (n=220)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Growth opportunities	23.82	.43	.85
Org support	67.53	.29	.90
Advancement	14.83	.46	.85

It is clear from the above table that the three dimensions of the job resources measure (three-factor structure) have acceptable levels of reliability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.3.8 Goodness-of-fit statistics: job resources (three-factor structure) (n= 220).

The fit indices associated with the three-factor conceptualisation of job resources are presented in the following table.

Table 4.19

Fit Indices for Job Resources (Three-factor Structure) (n=220)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Job resources	1945.90	662	.09 (.09; .10)	0.10	.91	.94

It is clear that the majority of the fit indices (e.g. RMSEA, SRMR, NFI, and CFI) indicate a model of with less than acceptable fit (Hair et al., 2006).

In order to investigate the reason for the lack of fit reported in the above table, it was decided to separate the social support element from the organisational support dimension and evaluate a four-dimensional factor structure – as suggested by Rothmann and Jordaan (2006).

4.3.9 Item Analysis: Job resources (four-factor structure) (n=220).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the two dimensions (social support and organisational support) associated with the job resources construct. The reported results of the other two dimensions (growth opportunities and advancement) remain the same. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the social support dimension is reported below.

Table 4.20

Item Analysis for Social Support (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrc_9	16.11	6.96	2.63	.59	.72
jrc_10	16.05	6.61	2.57	.67	.69
jrc_11	15.57	8.65	2.94	.36	.77
jrc2_7	15.92	7.75	2.78	.44	.75
jrc2_8	16.05	7.36	2.71	.49	.74
jrc2_9	16.13	7.29	2.70	.54	.73

The 6 items measuring social support have an overall reliability coefficient of .77. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as adequate. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .37. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a definite but small relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the organisational support dimension is reported below.

Table 4.21

Item Analysis for Refined Organisational Support (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrc_12	45.70	77.48	8.80	.63	.89
jrc_13	45.54	79.39	8.91	.59	.90
jrc_14	46.03	74.38	8.62	.72	.89
jrc_15	45.50	83.31	9.12	.34	.90
jrc_16	45.44	82.59	9.08	.39	.90
jrc_17	45.99	77.38	8.79	.63	.89
jrc_18	45.91	77.77	8.81	.64	.89
jrc_19	46.07	77.38	8.79	.64	.89
jrc_20	46.34	75.61	8.69	.69	.89
jrc2_1	46.00	79.50	8.91	.52	.90
jrc2_2	46.23	79.79	8.93	.56	.90
jrc2_3	45.90	81.27	9.01	.43	.90
jrc2_4	45.80	76.90	8.76	.68	.89
jrc2_5	46.02	77.04	8.77	.67	.89
jrc2_6	46.91	81.22	9.01	.37	.90
jrc2_11	46.22	80.46	8.97	.43	.90
jrc2_12	46.37	75.43	8.68	.68	.89

The 17 items measuring refined organisational support have an overall reliability coefficient of .91. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .37. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a definite but small relationship exists among the items.

Additional results for the remaining two dimensions associated with the four-factor structure are reported below.

Table 4.22

Summary of Item Analysis for Job Resources (Four-factor Structure) (n=220)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Social support	23.82	.37	.77
Organisational Support	48.87	.36	.91

It is clear from the above table that the four dimensions of the job resources measure (four-factor structure) have acceptable levels of reliability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.3.10 Goodness-of-fit statistics: job resources (four-factor structure) (n=220).

The fit indices associated with the four-factor conceptualisation of job resources are presented in the following table.

Table 4.23

Fit Indices for Job Resources (Four-factor Structure) (n=220)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Job resources (Four-factor structure)	1651.46	659	.08 (.08; .09)	.09	.90	.93

When comparing the goodness-of-fit associated with both the four-factor structure as well as the three-dimensional structure associated the job resources construct, the following was observed. The former exhibited a slightly better fit with regards to the RMSEA and SRMR. In addition the values of both the NFI and CFI are almost the same for the three-factor structure.

4.3.11 Item analysis: past job resources (n=220).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with the past job resources construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

Table 4.24

Item Analysis for Past Job Resources (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrp_1	14.05	16.04	4.00	.73	.91
jrp_2	14.14	15.48	3.93	.84	.89
jrp_3	14.20	16.10	4.01	.79	.90
jrp_4	14.45	15.63	3.95	.76	.91
jrp_5	14.38	15.04	3.87	.85	.89

The 5 items measuring past job resources have an overall reliability coefficient of .92. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .71. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a strong relationship exists among the items.

4.3.12 Goodness-of-fit statistics: past job resources (n=220).

The fit indices associated with the past job resources construct is presented in the following table.

Table 4.25

Fit Indices for Past Job Resources (n=220)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Past job resources	14.99	5	.09 (.04; .15)	.04	.99	.99

It is clear that the majority of the fit indices (e.g. SRMR, NFI, and CFI) provide excellent fit (Hair et al., 2006). The value of RMSEA (.09) is within the acceptable range of .08 and .10 (Hair et al., 2006).

4.3.13 Item analysis: supportive organisational climate (n=220).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the four dimensions (managerial competence, employee commitment, cooperation/coordination, cultural sensitivity). The first three dimensions are associated with the original factor structure of the supportive organisational climate construct. The fourth dimension consists of self-developed items. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the managerial competence dimension are reported below.

Table 4.26

Item Analysis for Managerial Competence (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
soc_1	19.89	23.90	4.88	.69	.88
soc_2	19.79	24.25	4.92	.67	.88
soc_3	20.17	23.22	4.81	.74	.87
soc_4	20.04	22.53	4.74	.72	.87
soc_5	19.74	23.87	4.88	.70	.88
soc_6	20.21	23.11	4.80	.70	.87
soc_7	20.23	23.18	4.81	.64	.88

The 7 items measuring managerial competence have an overall reliability coefficient of .90. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .56. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the employee commitment dimension are reported below.

Table 4.27

Item Analysis for Employee Commitment (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
soc_8	15.69	14.16	3.76	.47	.81
soc_9	15.47	12.27	3.50	.75	.75
soc_10	16.03	12.83	3.58	.67	.77
soc_11	15.79	12.30	3.50	.70	.76
soc_12	14.70	16.18	4.02	.21	.86
soc_13	15.30	12.73	3.56	.75	.75

The 6 items measuring employee commitment have an overall reliability coefficient of .82. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .46. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the cooperation/coordination dimension are reported below.

Table 4.28

Item Analysis for Cooperation/coordination (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
soc_14	9.81	5.23	2.28	.65	.74
soc_15	9.70	5.18	2.27	.69	.72
soc_16	9.96	5.16	2.27	.70	.72
soc_17	9.71	6.06	2.46	.45	.83

The 4 items measuring cooperation/coordination have an overall reliability coefficient of .81. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from

the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .52. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the cultural sensitivity dimension are reported below.

Table 4.29

Item Analysis for Cultural Sensitivity (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if deleted
soc_18	3.40	.39	NA
soc_19	3.43	.39	NA

The 2 items measuring cultural sensitivity have an overall reliability coefficient of .57. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as having limited applicability. However, Hair et al. (2006) suggest that reliabilities as low as .60 may be regarded as acceptable. It is clear from the above table that neither of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .40. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a definite but small relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are reported below.

Table 4.30

Summary of Item Analysis for Supportive Organisational Climate (n=220)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Managerial competence	23.35	.55	.90
Employee commitment	18.60	.45	.82

Table 4.30 (continued).

Summary of Item Analysis for Supportive Organisational Climate (n=220)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Cooperation/ coordination	13.06	.52	.81
Cultural sensitivity	6.83	.39	.57

It is clear from the above table that three of the dimensions of the supportive organisational climate measure have acceptable reliabilities, except the cultural sensitivity dimension that can be interpreted as having limited applicability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.3.14 Goodness-of-fit statistics: supportive organisational climate (n=220).

The fit indices associated with the supportive organisational climate construct are presented in the following table.

Table 4.31

Fit Indices for Supportive Organisational Climate (n=220)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Supportive organisational climate	384.15	146	.08 (.08; .10)	.08	.95	.97

It is clear that two of the fit indices (NFI and CFI) provide evidence of good fit. Both the RMSEA and SRMR values are within the acceptable level of between .08 and .10 (Hair et al., 2006).

4.3.15 Item Analysis: Psychological empowerment (n=220).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the four dimensions (competence, meaning, self-determination, and impact) associated with

the original factor structure of the psychological empowerment construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the competence dimension are reported below.

Table 4.32

Item Analysis for Competence (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
pe_1	12.05	2.81	1.67	.71	.67
pe_9	12.52	2.68	1.63	.54	.85
pe_12	12.25	2.49	1.58	.70	.65

The 3 items measuring competence have an overall reliability coefficient of .80. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. The removal of item 9 may increase the overall reliability, but it may lead to having a dimension that is underidentified. A unique solution cannot be found with an underidentified model (Hair et al., 2006). This is further complicated by the fact that it is not possible to calculate alpha if item deleted results when the construct only consists of two indicators. The average inter-item correlation is .60. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the meaning dimension are reported below.

Table 4.33

Item Analysis for Meaning (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
pe_2	11.94	4.03	2.00	.73	.84
pe_5	12.28	3.52	1.89	.76	.80
pe_10	12.22	3.32	1.82	.77	.80

The 3 items measuring meaning have an overall reliability coefficient of .87. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .68. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the self-determination dimension are reported below.

Table 4.34

Item Analysis for Self-determination (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
pe_3	10.80	6.35	2.52	.58	.90
pe_7	11.10	4.79	2.18	.81	.69
pe_8	11.29	4.84	2.20	.78	.72

The 3 items measuring self-determination have an overall reliability coefficient of .85. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. The removal of item 3 may increase the overall reliability, but it may lead to having a dimension that is underidentified. A unique solution cannot be found for such a model (Hair et al., 2006). This is further complicated by the fact that it is not possible to calculate alpha if item deleted results when the construct only consists of two indicators.

The average inter-item correlation is .68. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the impact dimension are reported below.

Table 4.35

Item Analysis for Impact (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
pe_4	10.49	7.52	2.74	.66	.89
pe_6	11.17	5.86	2.42	.79	.78
pe_11	11.02	5.93	2.43	.82	.75

The 3 items measuring impact have an overall reliability coefficient of .87. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items if they were deleted would substantially increase the overall reliability. Although the removal of item 4 may increase the overall reliability, it may lead to having a dimension that is underidentified. A unique solution cannot be found for such a model (Hair et al., 2006). This is further complicated by the fact that it is not possible to calculate alpha if item deleted results when the construct only consists of two indicators. The average inter-item correlation is .70. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are reported below.

Table 4.36

Summary of Item Analysis for Psychological Empowerment (n=220)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Competence	18.41	.59	.80
Meaning	18.22	.69	.87
Self-determination	16.59	.67	.85
Impact	16.35	.70	.87

It is clear from the above table that the four dimensions of the psychological empowerment measure have acceptable reliabilities (Nunnally, 1967).

4.3.16 Goodness-of-fit statistics: psychological empowerment (n=220).

The fit indices associated with the psychological empowerment construct are presented in the following table.

Table 4.37

Fit Indices for Psychological Empowerment (n=220)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Supportive organisational climate	126.72	48	.09 (.07; .11)	.06	.97	.98

It is clear that two of the fit indices (NFI and CFI) provide evidence of excellent fit, while a third fit index (SRMR) provides evidence of acceptable fit. The RMSEA value is within the acceptable range of between .08 and .10 (Hair et al., 2006).

4.3.17 Item analysis: psychological capital (n=220).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the four dimensions (self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism) associated with the original factor structure of the psychological capital construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the self-efficacy dimension are reported below.

Table 4.38

Item Analysis for Self-efficacy (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
psyc_1	25.14	10.67	3.26	.55	.75
psyc_2	25.06	9.56	3.09	.71	.71
psyc_3	25.67	9.27	3.04	.56	.74
psyc_4	25.21	9.66	3.10	.53	.75
psyc_5	25.00	10.61	3.25	.39	.78
psyc_6	25.10	10.36	3.21	.51	.75

The 6 items measuring self-efficacy have an overall reliability coefficient of .79. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as adequate. It is clear from the above table that none of the items if they were deleted would increase the overall reliability. The average inter-item correlation is .40. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests a definite but small relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the hope dimension are reported below.

Table 4.39

Item Analysis for Hope (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
psyc_7	24.60	12.92	3.59	.49	.80
psyc_8	24.57	11.86	3.44	.57	.78
psyc_9	24.37	13.22	3.63	.50	.80
psyc_10	24.71	11.68	3.41	.61	.78
psyc_11	24.59	11.85	3.44	.69	.76
psyc_12	24.70	11.47	3.38	.61	.78

The 6 items measuring hope have an overall reliability coefficient of .82. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items if they were deleted would increase the overall reliability. The average inter-item correlation is .44. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the resilience dimension are reported below.

Table 4.40

Item Analysis for Resilience (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
psyc_13(reversed)	24.80	9.33	3.05	.11	.68
psyc_14	22.74	7.79	2.79	.36	.39
psyc_15	22.69	7.04	2.65	.31	.40
psyc_16	22.88	7.09	2.66	.42	.35
psyc_17	22.50	7.49	2.73	.43	.36
psyc_18	22.65	7.76	2.78	.34	.40

The 6 items measuring resilience have an overall reliability coefficient of .49. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as having limited applicability. It is clear that the removal of item 13 would increase the overall reliability. To allow for meaningful comparisons with other studies that used the original measurement of this construct, no items were removed. The average inter-item correlation is .19. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that almost no relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the optimism dimension are reported below.

Table 4.41

Item Analysis for Optimism (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
psyc_19	20.54	11.67	3.41	.25	.49
psyc_20(reversed)	21.69	11.14	3.33	.25	.49
psyc_21	19.91	12.03	3.46	.35	.45
psyc_22	20.24	11.63	3.41	.26	.48
psyc_23(reversed)	22.06	11.36	3.37	.18	.53
psyc_24	20.35	10.52	3.24	.39	.42

The 6 items measuring optimism have an overall reliability coefficient of .53. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as having limited applicability. It is clear that the removal of none of the items would increase the overall reliability.

To allow for meaningful comparisons with other studies that used the original measurement of this construct, no items were removed. The average inter-item correlation is .17. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that almost no relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are reported below.

Table 4.42

Summary of Item Analysis for Psychological Capital (n=220)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Self-efficacy	30.24	.39	.79
Hope	29.51	.43	.82
Resilience	27.65	.18	.49
Optimism	24.96	.17	.53

It is clear from the above table that two of the dimensions of the psychological capital measure have acceptable levels of reliability, except the resilience and optimism dimensions that can be interpreted as having limited applicability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.3.18 Goodness-of-fit statistics: psychological capital (n=220).

The fit indices associated with the psychological capital construct are presented in the following table.

Table 4.43

Fit Indices for Psychological Capital (n=220)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Psychological capital	406.74	246	.05 (.05;.06)	.08	.94	.98

From the above table it is clear that three of the fit indices (RMSEA, NFI, and CFI) provide evidence of good to excellent fit, while the third fit index (SRMR) provides evidence of acceptable fit being within the acceptable range of between .08 and .10 (Hair et al., 2006).

4.3.19 Item analysis: objective career success (n=220).

The current study measured objective career success (current and past) using two items. These two items required participants to respond to their number of salary increases, as well as promotions. Given the fact that the construct consists only of two indicators, the measurement model will be underidentified (Hair et al., 2006). The latter is not an ideal situation. A unique solution cannot be found for such a model (Hair et al., 2006). This is further complicated by the fact that it is not possible to calculate alpha if item deleted results when the construct only consists of two indicators.

The quality of this construct and its associated indicators will be evaluated during the main study (Phase 3), using a variance-based approach to structural equation modelling when exploring the proposed structural model. The variance-based approach to structural equation modelling does not suffer from complications related to non-convergence when including constructs with fewer than three indicators (Henseler et al., 2009).

4.3.20 Item analysis: subjective career success (n=220).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the three dimensions (career satisfaction, perceived internal marketability, and perceived external marketability) associated with the subjective career success construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the career satisfaction dimension are reported below.

Table 4.44

Item Analysis for Career Satisfaction (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
cs_1	13.62	14.34	3.78	.73	.86
cs_2	13.77	13.71	3.70	.78	.85
cs_3	14.32	13.64	3.69	.70	.87
cs_4	13.99	13.74	3.70	.78	.85
cs_5	13.88	15.04	3.87	.64	.88

The 5 items measuring career satisfaction have an overall reliability coefficient of .89. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items if they were deleted would increase the overall reliability. The average inter-item correlation is .63. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the perceived internal marketability dimension are reported below.

Table 4.45

Item Analysis for Perceived Internal Marketability (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
cs_6	6.91	3.40	1.84	.77	.65
cs_7	6.90	3.51	1.87	.74	.68
cs_8	7.22	3.36	1.83	.53	.91

The 3 items measuring perceived internal marketability have an overall reliability coefficient of .82. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. Although the removal of item 8 will increase the overall reliability it will result in a underidentified model. The latter is not the ideal. A unique solution cannot be found for such a model (Hair et al., 2006). This is further complicated by the fact that it is not possible to calculate alpha if item deleted results when the construct only consists of two indicators. The average inter-item correlation is .66. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the perceived external marketability dimension are reported below.

Table 4.46

Item Analysis for Perceived External Marketability (n=220)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
cs_9	7.95	2.14	1.46	.53	.61
cs_10	7.90	2.08	1.44	.59	.54
cs_11	7.90	2.62	1.62	.47	.68

The 3 items measuring perceived external marketability have an overall reliability coefficient of .71. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as adequate. It is clear from the above table that none of the items if they were deleted would increase the overall reliability. The average inter-item correlation is .46. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are reported below.

Table 4.47

Summary of Item Analysis for Subjective Career Success (n=220)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Career satisfaction	17.40	.62	.89
Perceived internal marketability	10.52	.66	.82
Perceived external marketability	11.88	.45	.71

It is clear from the above table that the three dimensions of the subjective career success measure have acceptable levels of reliability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.3.21 Goodness-of-fit statistics: subjective career success (n= 220).

The fit indices associated with the subjective career success construct are presented in the following table.

Table 4.48

Fit Indices for Subjective Career Success (n=220)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Subjective career success	77.85	41	.06 (.04; .09)	.06	.97	.98

It is clear that all the fit indices provide evidence of good fit (Hair et al., 2006).

The previous section reported on the psychometric properties (item analyses, reliability estimates, confirmatory factor analyses, and exploratory factor analysis) of the constructs used during the Instrument Development Phase (Phase 2). The following section will elaborate on the psychometric properties of the constructs used in the Main Study (Phase 3).

Although the majority of constructs performed as expected (being reliable and having appropriate levels of fit) there seems to be other constructs that may need to be further investigated with regard to their reliability (e.g. PsyCap resilience and PsyCap optimism). In addition there are constructs (e.g. the four-factor structure of job resources) that may need to be confirmed in the main study.

4.4 Quantitative Research Results: Psychometric Properties: Main Study (Phase 3)

The results reported in this section are based on a sample of 418 respondents who are independent from the sample used (n= 220) during the Instrument Development/Pilot Phase (Phase 2).

Phase 3 continues with the evaluation of the quality of the instruments used to measure the constructs. Item analyses (including reliability coefficients) and goodness-of-fit statistics (associated with confirmatory factor analysis) are reported in separate tables in the following section.

4.4.1 Item analysis: transformational leadership (n=418).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the four dimensions (idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualised consideration) associated with the original factor structure of the transformational leadership construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the idealised influence dimension are reported below.

Table 4.49

Item Analysis for Idealised Influence (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
tlc_1	28.97	70.02	8.36	.74	.90
tlc_3	29.50	72.07	8.48	.61	.91
tlc_6	29.28	68.90	8.30	.73	.91
tlc_8	29.05	69.34	8.32	.77	.90
tlc_10	29.20	67.32	8.20	.81	.90
tlc_12	29.08	70.87	8.41	.72	.91
tlc_13	28.72	72.74	8.52	.67	.91
tlc_19	29.20	68.48	8.27	.79	.90

The 8 items measuring idealised influence have an overall reliability coefficient of .92. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .60. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the intellectual stimulation dimension are reported below.

Table 4.50

Item Analysis for Intellectual Stimulation (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
tlc_2	11.95	14.94	3.86	.59	.85
tlc_4	11.96	13.09	3.61	.72	.80
tlc_16	11.99	12.64	3.55	.74	.79
tlc_18	12.12	12.80	3.57	.73	.79

The 4 items measuring intellectual stimulation have an overall reliability coefficient of .85. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .60. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the inspirational motivation dimension are reported below.

Table 4.51

Item Analysis for Inspirational Motivation (n=418)

Items	Mean if Item Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
tlc_5	13.09	14.13	3.75	.78	.89
tlc_7	12.72	14.74	3.84	.80	.88
tlc_14	13.20	14.10	3.75	.80	.88
tlc_20	12.85	14.44	3.80	.79	.88

The 4 items measuring inspirational motivation have an overall reliability coefficient of .91. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .72. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a strong relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the individualised consideration dimension are reported below.

Table 4.52

Item Analysis for Individualised Consideration (n=418)

Items	Mean if Item Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
tlc_9	11.90	15.88	3.98	.76	.82
tlc_11	11.42	17.87	4.22	.62	.88
tlc_15	11.70	16.26	4.03	.75	.83
tlc_17	11.71	15.16	3.89	.79	.81

The 4 items measuring individualised consideration have an overall reliability coefficient of .88. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .64. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are presented in the following table.

Table 4.53

Summary of Item Analysis for Transformational Leadership (Original Structure) (n= 418)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Idealised Influence	33.28	.59	.92
Inspirational Motivation	17.29	.72	.91
Intellectual Stimulation	16.01	.60	.85
Individualised Consideration	15.58	.64	.88

It is clear from the above table that the four dimensions of the transformational leadership measure (original structure) have acceptable levels of reliability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.4.2 Goodness-of-fit statistics: transformational leadership (original structure) (n=418).

The fit indices associated with the original structure of transformational leadership are presented in the following table.

Table 4.54

Fit Indices for Transformational Leadership (Original Structure) (n=418)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Transformational leadership (Original Structure)	511.16	164	.07 (.06; .08)	.04	.98	.99

It is clear that the majority of the fit indices (e.g. SRMR, NFI, and CFI) provide evidence of excellent fit. The RMSEA value seems to indicate acceptable fit, given the suggested range of between .08 and .10 (Hair et al., 2006).

4.4.2.1 Comparison of Phase 2 and Phase 3 results for Transformational leadership.

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 for each of the dimensions of the transformational leadership construct, it is clear that Phase 3 results had slightly better reliabilities: Idealised influence (.90 vs .92); inspirational motivation (.88 vs .91); intellectual stimulation (.85 vs .85); individualised consideration (.84 vs .88).

The current results associated with the goodness-of-fit are better than the unidimensional structure obtained during the instrument development phase (Phase 2). In addition, there was an improvement in the goodness-of-fit associated with the

original structure. Therefore, the current study will use the original conceptualisation of transformational leadership in all further analyses.

4.4.3 Item analysis: past leadership (n=418).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with the past leadership construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the past leadership dimension are reported below.

Table 4.55

Item Analysis for Past Leadership (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
tlp_1	13.49	17.03	4.12	.77	.87
tlp_2	13.61	16.72	4.08	.81	.86
tlp_3	13.79	17.89	4.22	.67	.89
tlp_4	13.96	17.33	4.16	.71	.88
tlp_5	13.80	16.85	4.10	.78	.87

The 5 items measuring past leadership have an overall reliability coefficient of .90. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .65. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

4.4.4 Goodness-of-fit statistics: past leadership (n=418).

The fit indices associated with the past leadership construct are presented in the following table.

Table 4.56

Fit Indices for Past Leadership (n=418)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Past leadership	47.27	5	.14 (.11; .18)	.04	.98	.98

It is clear that the majority of the fit indices (e.g. SRMR, NFI, and CFI) provide evidence of excellent fit. The RMSEA value indicates poor fit (.14) being above the acceptable level of between .08 and .10 (Hair et al., 2006).

4.4.4.1 Comparison of phase 2 and phase 3 results for past leadership.

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 of the past leadership construct, it is clear that the results are fairly consistent: .92 vs .90.

In some instances, the current results associated with the goodness-of-fit are fairly similar: NFI (.99 vs .98); CFI (.99 vs .98); SRMR (.03 vs .04). With regard to the RMSEA, Phase 2 had a slightly lower value (.11 vs .14).

Given the above, the current study will use the proposed conceptualisation of past leadership in all further analyses.

4.4.5 Item Analysis: Job resources (n=418).

During the Instrument Development/Pilot Phase, it was established that a revised factor structure, consisting of four dimensions, fitted the data the best. These four dimensions are growth opportunities, social support, organisational support and advancement. Hence, this factor structure was evaluated during the Main Study (Phase 3).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the four dimensions. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the growth opportunities dimension are reported below.

Table 4.57

Item Analysis for Growth Opportunities (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrc_1	20.93	19.42	4.40	.58	.83
jrc_2	20.99	19.24	4.38	.56	.83
jrc_3	21.23	18.33	4.28	.63	.83
jrc_4	21.04	18.08	4.25	.71	.82
jrc_5	20.96	18.83	4.34	.66	.82
jrc_6	20.90	19.87	4.45	.56	.83
jrc_7	20.83	20.34	4.51	.48	.84
jrc_8	20.94	20.04	4.47	.53	.84

The 8 items measuring growth opportunities have an overall reliability coefficient of .85. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .43. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the social support dimension are reported below.

Table 4.58

Item Analysis for Social Support (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrc_9	16.02	6.95	2.63	.50	.69
jrc_10	15.87	6.65	2.57	.58	.67
jrc_11	15.53	8.33	2.88	.33	.73
jrc2_7	15.69	7.52	2.74	.49	.69
jrc2_8	15.86	7.34	2.71	.46	.70
jrc2_9	15.93	7.32	2.70	.47	.70

The 6 items measuring social support have an overall reliability coefficient of .74. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as adequate. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .33. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a definite but small relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the organisational support dimension are reported below.

Table 4.59

Item Analysis for Organisational Support (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrc_12	46.22	80.43	8.96	.59	.90
jrc_13	46.05	82.37	9.07	.57	.90
jrc_14	46.50	78.22	8.84	.70	.90
jrc_15	46.22	84.60	9.19	.39	.91
jrc_16	46.06	83.74	9.15	.45	.90
jrc_17	46.57	79.72	8.92	.62	.90
jrc_18	46.47	80.86	8.99	.62	.90
jrc_19	46.55	79.85	8.93	.65	.90
jrc_20	46.77	77.69	8.81	.72	.90
jrc2_1	46.47	80.74	8.98	.60	.90
jrc2_2	46.77	80.74	8.98	.57	.90
jrc2_3	46.40	80.92	8.99	.60	.90
jrc2_4	46.19	79.43	8.91	.71	.90
jrc2_5	46.51	79.34	8.90	.68	.90
jrc2_6	47.43	82.91	9.10	.40	.91
jrc2_11	46.77	83.68	9.14	.36	.91
jrc2_12	46.83	78.58	8.86	.64	.90

The 17 items measuring organisational support have an overall reliability coefficient of .91. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability. The average inter-item correlation is .39. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a definite but small relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the advancement dimension are reported below.

Table 4.60

Item Analysis for Advancement (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrc2_10	13.41	17.45	4.17	.55	.85
jrc2_13	13.57	17.49	4.18	.66	.83
jrc2_14	13.74	17.47	4.18	.65	.83
jrc2_15	13.87	17.04	4.12	.69	.83
jrc2_16	13.68	16.61	4.07	.71	.82
jrc2_17	13.10	17.84	4.22	.51	.85
jrc2_18	13.58	17.11	4.13	.61	.84

The 7 items measuring advancement have an overall reliability coefficient of .86. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .49. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are reported below.

Table 4.61

Summary of Item Analysis for Job Resources (Four-factor Structure) (n=418)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Growth opportunities	23.98	.42	.85
Social support	18.98	.33	.74
Organisational Support	49.42	.38	.91
Advancement	15.83	.49	.86

It is clear from the above table that the four dimensions of the job resources measure (four-factor structure) have acceptable levels of reliability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.4.6 Goodness-of-fit statistics: job resources (four-factor structure) (n=418).

The fit indices associated with the job resources construct are presented in the following table.

Table 4.62

Fit Indices for Job Resources (Four-factor Structure) (n=418)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Job resources (Four-factor structure)	3052.61	659	.09 (.09; .10)	.10	.92	.94

It is clear that the majority of the fit indices (e.g. RMSEA, NFI, and CFI) provide evidence of adequate fit (Hair et al., 2006; Hu & Bentler, 1999), except for the SRMR.

4.4.6.1 Comparison of Phase 2 and Phase 3 results for job resources (four-factor structure).

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 of the job resources construct, it is clear that the results are fairly consistent: Growth opportunities (.85 vs .85); social support (.77 vs .74); organisational support (.91 vs .91); and advancement (.85 vs .86).

In some instances, the current results associated with the goodness-of-fit are fairly similar between Phase 2 and Phase 3: NFI (.90 vs .92); CFI (.93 vs .94); SRMR (.09 vs .10). It is evident that the SRMR seems to suggest that an improvement in model fit may be possible. With regard to the RMSEA, Phase 2 had a slightly lower value (.08 vs .09).

Given the above, the current study will use the four-factor structure associated with job resources in all further analyses.

4.4.7 Item analysis: past job resources (n=418).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with the past job resources construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

Table 4.63

Item Analysis for Past Job Resources (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
jrp_1	14.56	13.56	3.68	.74	.88
jrp_2	14.53	13.09	3.61	.82	.86
jrp_3	14.59	13.46	3.66	.73	.88
jrp_4	14.94	13.11	3.62	.71	.89
jrp_5	14.83	12.87	3.58	.78	.87

The 5 items measuring past job resources have an overall reliability coefficient of .90. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .66. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

4.4.8 Goodness-of-fit statistics: past job resources (n=418).

The fit indices associated with the past job resources construct are presented in the following table.

Table 4.64

Fit Indices for Past Job Resources (n=418)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Past job resources	35.02	5	.12 (.08; .16)	.04	.98	.99

It is clear that the majority of the fit indices (e.g. SRMR, NFI, and CFI) provide excellent fit (Hair et al., 2006). The value of RMSEA is outside of the suggested range (.08 and .10) (Hair et al., 2006).

4.4.8.1 Comparison of Phase 2 and Phase 3 results for past job resources.

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 of the past job resources construct, it is clear that the results are fairly consistent: .92 vs .90.
When comparing the goodness-of-fit associated with Phase 2 and Phase 3 the results are fairly similar: NFI (.99 vs .98); CFI (.99 vs .99); SRMR (.04 vs .04). With regards to the RMSEA, Phase 2 had a slightly lower value (.09 vs .12).

Given the above, the current study will use the proposed conceptualisation of past job resources in all further analyses.

4.4.9 Item Analysis: Supportive organisational climate (n= 418).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the four dimensions (managerial competence, employee commitment, cooperation/coordination, and cultural sensitivity) of the supportive organisational climate construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the managerial competence dimension are reported below.

Table 4.65

Item Analysis for Managerial Competence (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
soc_1	20.56	23.31	4.82	.73	.88
soc_2	20.36	24.12	4.91	.65	.88
soc_3	20.79	23.07	4.80	.72	.88
soc_4	20.73	22.51	4.74	.72	.88
soc_5	20.44	23.27	4.82	.72	.88
soc_6	20.84	22.18	4.70	.76	.87
soc_7	20.89	23.44	4.84	.61	.89

The 7 items measuring managerial competence have an overall reliability coefficient of .90. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as excellent. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .57. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the employee commitment dimension are reported below.

Table 4.66

Item Analysis for Employee Commitment (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
soc_8	16.00	15.55	3.94	.52	.83
soc_9	15.79	14.04	3.74	.73	.78
soc_10	16.33	14.29	3.78	.65	.80
soc_11	16.04	13.91	3.72	.70	.79
soc_12	15.19	17.01	4.12	.34	.86
soc_13	15.61	14.09	3.75	.74	.78

The 6 items measuring employee commitment have an overall reliability coefficient of .84. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .48. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the cooperation/coordination dimension are reported below.

Table 4.67

Item Analysis for Cooperation/coordination (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
soc_14	10.07	5.78	2.40	.74	.76
soc_15	9.96	5.65	2.37	.77	.75
soc_16	10.24	5.76	2.40	.68	.79
soc_17	9.93	6.86	2.61	.50	.86

The 4 items measuring cooperation/coordination have an overall reliability coefficient of .84. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .58. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the cultural sensitivity dimension are reported below.

Table 4.68

Item Analysis for Cultural Sensitivity (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
soc_18	3.52	1.03	1.01	.47	NA
soc_19	3.58	0.98	0.99	.47	NA

The 2 items measuring cultural sensitivity have an overall reliability coefficient of .65. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as having limited applicability. However, according to Hair et al. (2006), reliability estimates as low as .60 may be viewed as acceptable. The average inter-item correlation is .48. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are reported in the following table.

Table 4.69

Summary of Item Analysis for Supportive Organisational Climate (n=418)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Managerial competence	24.10	.56	.90
Employee commitment	18.99	.47	.84
Cooperation/ coordination	13.40	.58	.84
Cultural sensitivity	7.11	.47	.65

It is clear from the above table that three of the dimensions of the supportive organisational climate measure have acceptable levels of reliability, while the cultural sensitivity dimension that can be interpreted as having limited applicability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.4.10 Goodness-of-fit statistics: supportive organisational climate (n=418).

The fit indices associated with the supportive organisational construct are presented in the following table.

Table 4.70

Fit Indices for Supportive Organisational Climate (n=418)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Supportive organisational climate	429.79	146	.07 (.06; .08)	.06	.98	.98

It is clear that two of the fit indices (NFI and CFI) provide evidence of excellent fit. Both the RMSEA and SRMR values indicate acceptable fit.

4.4.10.1 Comparison of Phase 2 and Phase 3 results for supportive organisational climate.

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 of the supportive organisational climate construct, it is clear that the results for managerial competence (.90 vs .90) and employee commitment (.82 vs .84) are fairly consistent. The results obtained in Phase 3 are slightly better for cooperation\coordination (.81 vs .84) and cultural sensitivity (.57 vs .65).

The goodness-of-fit results (obtained in Phase 3) are slightly better than those obtained in Phase 2: NFI (.95 vs .98); CFI (.97 vs .98); SRMR (.08 vs .06). With regard to the RMSEA, Phase 3 had a slightly lower value (.08 vs .07).

Given the above, the current study will use the proposed conceptualisation of supportive organisational climate in all further analyses.

4.4.11 Item analysis: psychological empowerment (n=418).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the four dimensions (competence, meaning, self-determination, and impact) of the psychological empowerment construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the competence dimension are reported below.

Table 4.71

Item Analysis for Competence (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
pe_1	11.97	3.39	1.84	0.65	0.80
pe_9	12.46	2.43	1.56	0.71	0.75
pe_12	12.18	2.97	1.72	0.72	0.72

The 3 items measuring competence have an overall reliability coefficient of .83. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .63. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the meaning dimension are reported below.

Table 4.72

Item Analysis for Meaning (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
pe_2	11.81	4.78	2.18	.74	.85
pe_5	12.28	3.34	1.82	.76	.82
pe_10	12.13	3.73	1.93	.80	.77

The 3 items measuring meaning have an overall reliability coefficient of .87. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .72. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a strong relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the self-determination dimension are reported below.

Table 4.73

Item Analysis for Self-determination (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
pe_3	11.08	5.95	2.44	.58	.89
pe_7	11.21	4.58	2.14	.78	.71
pe_8	11.34	4.60	2.14	.78	.71

The 3 items measuring self-determination have an overall reliability coefficient of .85. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. Although the removal of item 3 may slightly increase the overall reliability, this may lead to a dimension that is underidentified. A unique solution cannot be found for such a model (Hair et al., 2006). This is further complicated by the fact that it is not possible to calculate alpha if item deleted results when the construct only consists of two indicators. The average inter-item correlation is .66. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the impact dimension are reported below.

Table 4.74

Item Analysis for Impact (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
pe_4	10.29	7.39	2.72	.68	.86
pe_6	11.05	5.48	2.34	.77	.78
pe_11	10.90	5.80	2.40	.79	.75

The 3 items measuring impact have an overall reliability coefficient of .86. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would substantially increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .69. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are presented in the table below.

Table 4.75

Summary of Item analysis for Psychological Empowerment (n=418)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Competence	18.30	.62	.83
Meaning	18.11	.71	.87
Self-determination	16.82	.66	.85
Impact	16.13	.68	.86

It is clear from the above table that the four dimensions of the psychological empowerment measure all have acceptable levels of reliability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.4.12 Goodness-of-fit statistics: psychological empowerment (n=418).

The fit indices associated with the psychological empowerment construct are presented in the following table.

Table 4.76

Fit Indices for Psychological Empowerment (n=418)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Psychological empowerment	270.09	48	.11 (.09; .12)	.06	.97	.97

It is clear that two of the fit indices (NFI and CFI) provide evidence of excellent fit, while a third fit index (SRMR) provides evidence of acceptable fit. The RMSEA value is slightly above the acceptable range of between .08 and .10 (Hair et al., 2006).

4.4.12.1 Comparison of Phase 2 and Phase 3 results for psychological empowerment (four-factor structure).

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 of the psychological empowerment construct, it is clear that the results are fairly similar: Competence (.80 vs .83); meaning (.87 vs .87); self-determination (.85 vs .85); and impact (.87 vs .86).

When comparing the goodness-of-fit indices of Phase 2 and Phase 3, the results are fairly similar: NFI (.97 vs .97); CFI (.98 vs .97); SRMR (.06 vs .06). With regard to the RMSEA, Phase 2 had a slightly lower value (.09 vs .11).

Given the above, the current study will use the four-factor structure associated with psychological empowerment in all further analyses.

4.4.13 Item analysis: psychological capital (n=418).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the four dimensions (self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and optimism) associated with the psychological capital construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the self-efficacy dimension are reported below.

Table 4.77

Item Analysis for Self-efficacy (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
psyc_1	25.27	12.76	3.57	.50	.83
psyc_2	25.28	11.07	3.32	.71	.79
psyc_3	25.70	10.67	3.26	.63	.80
psyc_4	25.32	11.36	3.37	.69	.79
psyc_5	25.26	11.53	3.3	.54	.82
psyc_6	25.22	11.73	3.42	.62	.81

The 6 items measuring self-efficacy have an overall reliability coefficient of .84. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .47. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the hope dimension are reported below.

Table 4.78

Item Analysis for Hope (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
psyc_7	24.90	11.75	3.42	.50	.81
psyc_8	24.83	10.86	3.29	.60	.79
psyc_9	24.69	11.93	3.45	.54	.81
psyc_10	25.07	10.38	3.22	.63	.79
psyc_11	24.89	10.89	3.30	.72	.77
psyc_12	25.02	11.09	3.33	.58	.80

The 6 items measuring hope have an overall reliability coefficient of .83. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .45. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the resilience dimension are reported below.

Table 4.79

Item Analysis for Resilience (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
psyc_13(reversed)	24.96	10.02	3.16	.06	.72
psyc_14	24.05	9.76	3.12	.42	.53
psyc_15	23.99	9.27	3.04	.42	.52
psyc_16	24.38	8.49	2.91	.41	.52
psyc_17	23.85	8.99	2.99	.53	.49
psyc_18	23.93	10.06	3.17	.40	.54

The 6 items measuring resilience have an overall reliability coefficient of .60. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as having limited applicability.

However, according to Hair et al. (2006), reliability estimates as low as .6 may be viewed as acceptable. It is clear from the above table that none of the items if they were deleted (except for item 13) would substantially increase the overall reliability. To allow for meaningful comparisons with other studies that used the original measurement of this construct, no items were removed. The average inter-item correlation is .25. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a definite but small relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the optimism dimension are reported below.

Table 4.80

Item Analysis for Optimism (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
psyc_19	22.41	10.26	3.20	.21	.44
psyc_20(reversed)	23.27	10.05	3.17	.11	.51
psyc_21	21.83	9.78	3.12	.46	.35
psyc_22	22.02	9.19	3.03	.40	.35
psyc_23(reversed)	22.96	9.23	3.03	.18	.47
psyc_24	22.23	10.13	3.18	.20	.45

The 6 items measuring optimism have an overall reliability coefficient of .48. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as having limited applicability. It is clear from the above table that none of the items if they were deleted would substantially increase the overall reliability. The average inter-item correlation is .17. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that almost no relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are presented in the table below.

Table 4.81

Summary of Item Analysis for Psychological Capital (n=418)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Self-efficacy	30.41	.47	.84
Hope	29.88	.45	.83
Resilience	29.03	.25	.60
Optimism	26.94	.16	.48

It is clear from the above table that two of the dimensions of the psychological capital measure have acceptable levels of reliability, while the resilience and optimism dimensions can be interpreted as having limited applicability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.4.14 Goodness-of-fit statistics: psychological capital (n=418).

The fit indices associated with the psychological capital construct are presented in the following table.

Table 4.82

Fit Indices for Psychological Capital (n=418)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Psychological capital	596.40	246	.06 (.05; .06)	.07	.94	.98

From the above table it is clear that two of the fit indices (NFI and CFI) provide evidence of good to excellent fit, while the other two fit indices (RMSEA and SRMR) provides evidence of acceptable fit.

4.4.14.1 Comparison of phase 2 and phase 3 results for psychological capital.

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 of the psychological capital construct, it is clear that the results for self-efficacy (.79 vs .84); hope (.82 vs .83) are fairly consistent. The reliability associated with resilience

was higher in Phase 3 (.49 vs .60). There was a slight decrease in the estimate of reliability for optimism (.53 vs .48).

When comparing the goodness-of-fit for this construct in Phase 2 and Phase 3, the results are fairly similar: NFI (.94 vs .94); CFI (.98 vs .98); SRMR (.08 vs .07). With regards to the RMSEA, Phase 2 had a slightly lower value (.05 vs .06).

Given the above, the current study will use the proposed conceptualisation of psychological capital in all further analyses. Cognisance will be taken of the low reliability associated with the optimism dimension.

4.4.15 Item analysis: objective career success (current) (n=418).

The current study measured objective career success (current and past) using two items. These two items asked respondents about the number of salary increases as well as promotions. Given the fact that the construct consists of only two indicators, the measurement model will be underidentified (Hair et al., 2006). The latter is not an ideal situation. A unique solution cannot be found for such a model (Hair et al., 2006). This is further complicated by the fact that it is not possible to calculate alpha if item deleted results when the construct only consists of two indicators. Hence, no measurement model will be evaluated for this construct using covariance-based structural equation modelling.

The quality of this construct and its associated indicators will be evaluated during the main study (Phase 3) using a variance-based approach to structural equation modelling when exploring the proposed conceptual model. The variance-based approach to structural equation modelling does not suffer from complications related to non-convergence when including constructs with fewer than three indicators (Henseler et al., 2009).

4.4.16 Item analysis: subjective career success (n=418).

The following tables report on the item analysis associated with each of the three dimensions (career satisfaction, perceived internal marketability, and perceived

external marketability associated with the subjective career success construct. Emphasis will be placed on the inter-item correlations and reliability estimates.

The results associated with the item analysis for the career satisfaction dimension are reported below.

Table 4.83

Item Analysis for Career Satisfaction (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
cs_1	14.06	13.43	3.66	.62	.85
cs_2	14.11	12.83	3.58	.76	.82
cs_3	14.67	12.73	3.56	.64	.85
cs_4	14.37	12.37	3.51	.77	.81
cs_5	14.21	13.38	3.65	.65	.84

The 5 items measuring career satisfaction have an overall reliability coefficient of .87. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items would increase the overall reliability if they were deleted. The average inter-item correlation is .58. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the perceived internal marketability dimension are reported below.

Table 4.84

Item Analysis for Perceived Internal Marketability (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
cs_6	7.11	3.86	1.96	.76	.74
cs_7	7.07	3.78	1.94	.81	.70
cs_8	7.41	3.78	1.94	.59	.92

The 3 items measuring perceived internal marketability have an overall reliability coefficient of .85. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as good. It is clear from the above table that none of the items (except for item 8) if they were deleted would substantially increase the overall reliability. The removal of item 8 will result in an underidentified dimension, which is not the ideal (Hair et al., 2006). A unique solution cannot be found for such a model (Hair et al., 2006). This is further complicated by the fact that it is not possible to calculate alpha if item deleted results when the construct only consists of two indicators. The average inter-item correlation is .70. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a substantial relationship exists among the items.

The results associated with the item analysis for the perceived external marketability dimension are reported below.

Table 4.85

Item Analysis for Perceived External Marketability (n=418)

Items	Mean if Deleted	Variance if Deleted	Standard Deviation if Deleted	Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
cs_9	8.06	2.35	1.53	.64	.71
cs_10	8.01	2.39	1.54	.69	.66
cs_11	8.02	2.80	1.67	.58	.77

The 3 items measuring perceived external marketability have an overall reliability coefficient of .79. According to Nunnally (1967), this can be interpreted as adequate. The average inter-item correlation is .57. According to Guildford (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), this suggests that a strong relationship exists among the items.

Additional results are presented in the table below.

Table 4.86

Summary of Item Analysis for Subjective Career Success (n=418)

Dimension	Scale Mean	Average inter-item correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Career satisfaction	17.85	.57	.87
Perceived internal marketability	10.80	.69	.85
Perceived external marketability	12.04	.57	.79

It is clear from the above table that all the dimensions of the subjective career success measure have acceptable levels of reliability (Nunnally, 1967).

4.4.17 Goodness-of-fit statistics: subjective career success (n=418).

The fit indices associated with the subjective career success construct are presented in the following table.

Table 4.87

Fit Indices for Subjective Career Success (n=418)

Variable	*S-B* X^2	*df*	RMSEA	SRMR	NFI	CFI
Subjective career success	124.87	41	.07 (.06; .08)	.06	.97	.98

It is clear that all the fit indices provide evidence of good to excellent fit (Hair et al., 2006).

4.4.17.1 Comparison of Phase 2 and Phase 3 results for subjective career success.

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 of the subjective career success construct, it is clear that the results for career satisfaction (.89 vs .87), perceived internal marketability (.82 vs .85) and perceived external marketability (.71 vs .79) are fairly similar.

In most instances, the current results associated with the goodness-of-fit are fairly similar: NFI (.97 vs .97); CFI (.98 vs .98); SRMR (.06 vs .06). With regard to the RMSEA, Phase 2 had a slightly lower value (.06 vs .07).

Given the above comparison, the current study will use the three-dimensional structure associated with the subjective career success construct in all further analyses. Cognisance will be taken of the reliability associated with perceived external marketability. Given that the majority of instruments used to measure the constructs in the current study exhibited acceptable reliabilities and goodness-of-fit, the following section continues with the reporting of the results of the structural model.

4.5 Quantitative Results: Structural Model: Main Study (Phase 3)

The following sections will report on the results related to both the outer model (measurement model) and the inner model (structural model) associated with the proposed conceptual model below.

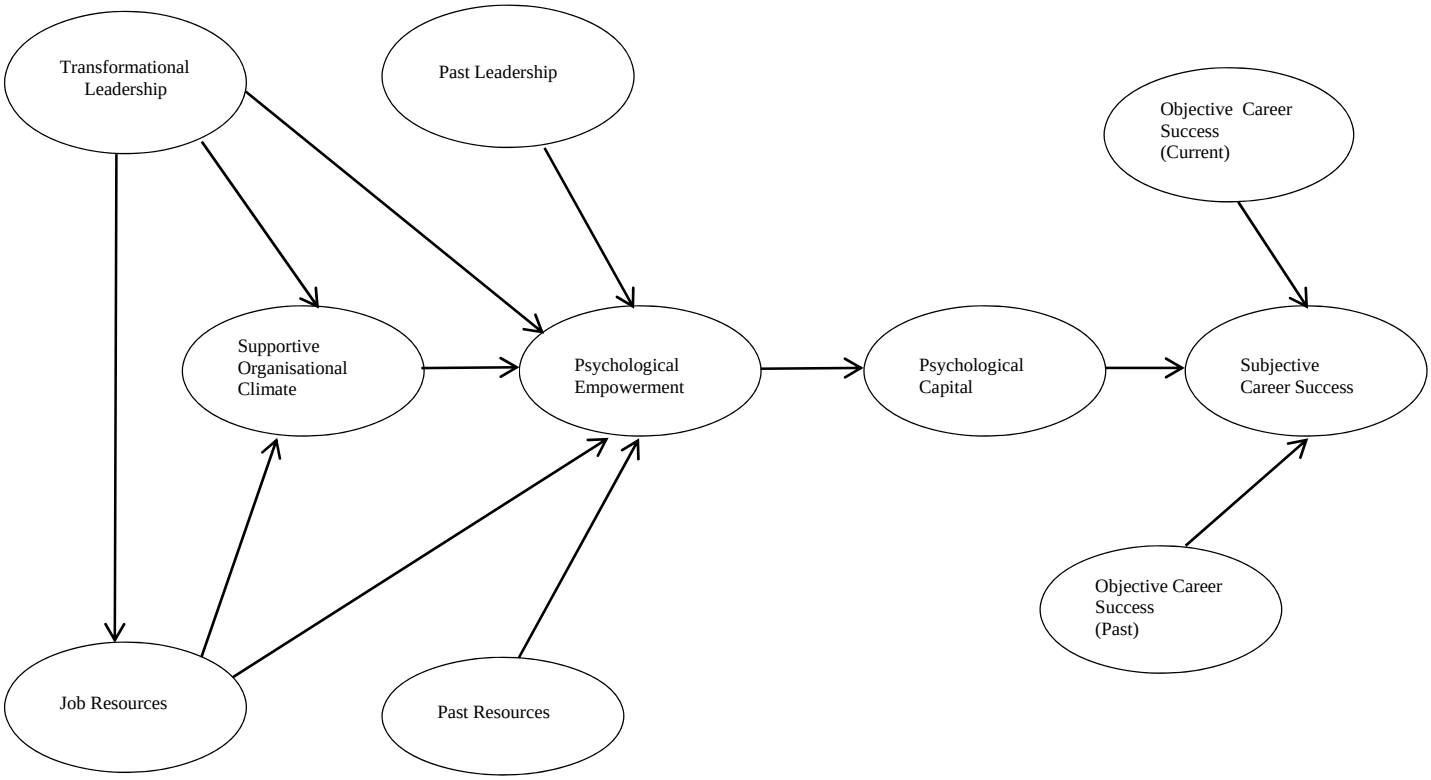

***Figure 4.2*. Conceptual model: Factors influencing subjective career success**

On the basis of the conceptual model, the reporting of the results will be guided by the following proposition:

> To explore a conceptual model describing the relationships between transformational leadership, past leadership, job resources, past job resources, supportive organisational climate, psychological empowerment, psychological capital (PsyCap), objective career success (current), objective career success (past), and subjective career success.

4.5.1 Results of the measurement and structural models.

When using the PLS approach to structural equation modelling, a two-step process is suggested (Chin, 1998). The first stage evaluates the outer model (i.e. measurement component). The purpose of this evaluation is to determine the measurement quality of the constructs to be used in the evaluation of the inner model (i.e. structural component).

Table 4.88

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 1)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Transformational Leadership	Individualised Inspiration (α= .92) Intellectual Stimulation (α= .85) Inspirational Motivation (α= .91) Individualised Consideration (α= .88)	.97	.88
Job Resources	Growth Opportunities (α= .85) Social Support (α= .74) Organisational Support (α= .91) Advancement (α= .86)	.86	.61

Table 4.88 (continued).

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 1)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Supportive Organisational Climate	Management Competence (α= .90) Employee Commitment (α= .84) Cooperation/Coordination (α= .84) Cultural Sensitivity (α= .65)	.91	.71
Past leadership	α= .90	.92	.70
Past job resources	α= .90	.93	.73
Psychological empowerment	Competence (α= .83) Meaning (α= .87) Self-determination (α= .85) Impact (α= .86)	.88	.71
Psychological capital (PsyCap)	Self-efficacy (α= 0.84) Hope (α= .83) Resilience (α= .60) Optimism (α= .48)	.86	.61
Objective Career Success (Current)	Salary increases Promotions	.77	.62
Objective Career Success (Past)	Salary increases Promotions	.40	.50
Subjective Career Success	Career Satisfaction (α= .87) Internal Marketability (α= .85) External Marketability (α= .79)	.88	.65

From the above table it is clear that the majority of variables meet the quality criteria associated with an acceptable outer model (i.e. measurement model). This is based on the fact that the majority of variables have acceptable reliabilities (composite and Cronbach's Alpha) as well as average variance extracted (AVE above .5).

Earlier in this chapter it was noted that some constructs were measured using only two items. When looking at the psychometric properties of both objective career success (current) and objective career success (past) the following should be noted. It is clear that objective career success (current) seems to have acceptable psychometric properties when considering composite reliability and AVE. In contrast, the average variance extracted associated with the objective career success (past) measure is on the border of an acceptable level, while the composite reliability is less acceptable (composite reliability =.40).

Table 4.89

PLS Path Modelling Results (Model 1)

	Path coefficient SmartPLS	Bootstrap lower SmartPLS	Bootstrap upper SmartPLS	Significance of SmartPLS
Transformational leadership to job resources	.61	.54	.67	Yes
Transformational leadership to supportive organisational climate	.19	.10	.28	Yes
Transformational leadership to psychological empowerment	-.08	-.19	.06	No
Past leadership to psychological empowerment	.01	-.07	.11	No

Table 4.89 (continued).

PLS Path Modelling Results (Model 1)

	Path coefficient SmartPLS	Bootstrap lower SmartPLS	Bootstrap upper SmartPLS	Significance of SmartPLS
Job resources to supportive organisational climate	.57	.49	.65	Yes
Job resources to psychological empowerment	.39	.27	.51	Yes
Supportive organisational climate to psychological empowerment	.23	.08	.35	Yes
Past resources to psychological empowerment	.14	.03	.25	Yes
Psychological empowerment to psychological capital	.57	.51	.63	Yes
Psychological capital to subjective career success	.45	.36	.53	Yes
Objective career success (current) to subjective career success	.06	-.02	.15	No
Objective career success (past) to subjective career success	.03	-.13	.12	No

It is clear from the above table that the majority of proposed path coefficients are significant. In addition the proportion of variance explained in subjective career success (dependent variable) is 21%.

The following paths were not significant:

- Transformational leadership to psychological empowerment
- Past leadership to psychological empowerment
- Objective career success (current) to subjective career success
- Objective career success (past) to subjective career success

Although in Model 1, a non-significant path was observed between past leadership and psychological empowerment, it was decided to further explore an indirect relationship:

  - Past leadership influencing psychological empowerment indirectly through past job resources

On further inspection of the results related to the outer model (Model 1), it was found that the two indicators, salary increases (past) and promotions (past) associated with objective career success (past) had non-significant loadings. Although the indicator promotions (current) had a significant loading, it was decided to remove promotions (current) and promotions (past) and only focus on the following two indicators: salary increases (current) and salary increases (past). The rationale being as follows:

  - Generally in practice, additional salary increases received over and above normal annual salary increases are viewed as short-term indicators of career success. In comparison, promotions do not usually occur as frequently as additional salary increases.

Hence, Model 2 will use the following indicators associated with objective career success:

  - Objective career success (current) will be conceptualised using a single indicator of salary increases (current).
  - Objective career success (past) will be conceptualised using a single indicator of salary increases (past).

PLS Path Model 1 is shown in Figure 4.3

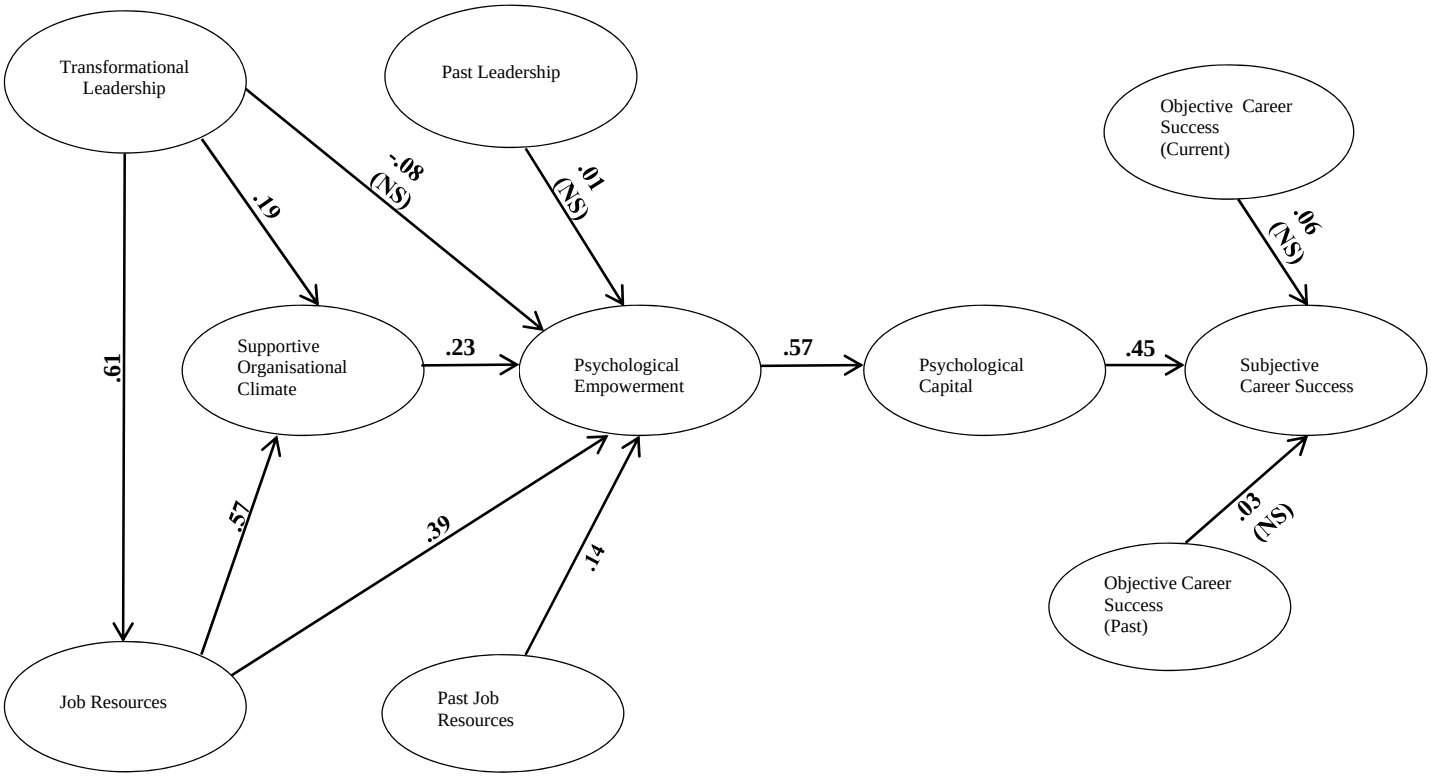

***Figure 4.3*. PLS path model: Model 1**

The following section will report on the impact of the changes suggested in the preceding section.

Table 4.90

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 2)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Transformational Leadership	Individualised Inspiration (α=.92) Intellectual Stimulation (α= .85) Inspirational Motivation (α= .91) Individualised Consideration (α= .88)	.97	.88

Table 4.90 (continued).

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 2)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Job resources	Growth Opportunities (α= .85) Social Support (α= .74) Organisational Support (α= .91) Advancement (α= .86)	.86	.61
Supportive Organisational Climate	Management Competence (α= .90) Employee Commitment (α= .84) Cooperation/Coordination (α= .84) Cultural Sensitivity (α= .65)	.91	.71
Past leadership	α= .90	.93	.72
Past job resources	α= .90	.93	.73
Psychological empowerment	Competence (α= .83) Meaning (α= .87) Self-determination (α= .85) Impact (α= .86)	.88	.71
Psychological Capital	Self-efficacy (α= .84) Hope (α= .83) Resilience (α= .60) Optimism (α= .48)	.86	.61
Objective Career Success (Current)	Salary increases	1.00	1.00
Objective Career Success (Past)	Salary increases	1.00	1.00

Table 4.90 (continued).

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 2)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Subjective Career Success	Career Satisfaction (α= .87) Internal Marketability (α= .85) External Marketability (α= .79)	.88	.65

From the above table it is clear that all of the variables meet the quality criteria associated with an acceptable outer model (i.e. measurement model). This is based on the fact that all of the variables have acceptable reliabilities (composite and Cronbach's Alpha) as well as average variance extracted (AVE above .5).

Table 4.91

PLS Path Modelling Results (Model 2)

	Path coefficient SmartPLS	Bootstrap lower SmartPLS	Bootstrap upper SmartPLS	Significance of SmartPLS
Transformational leadership to job resources	.61	.54	.67	Yes
Transformational leadership to supportive organisational climate	.19	.09	.28	Yes
Transformational leadership to psychological empowerment	-0.08	-0.19	.04	No
Job resources to supportive organisational climate	.57	.49	.65	Yes
Job resources to psychological empowerment	.39	.26	.52	Yes

Table 4.91 (continued).

PLS Path Modelling Results (Model 2)

	Path coefficient SmartPLS	Bootstrap lower SmartPLS	Bootstrap upper SmartPLS	Significance of SmartPLS
Supportive organisational climate to psychological empowerment	.23	.11	.35	Yes
Psychological empowerment to psychological capital	.57	.51	.63	Yes
Psychological capital to subjective career success	.45	.37	.53	Yes
Objective career success (current) to subjective career success	.04	-.05	.14	No
Objective career success (past) to subjective career success	.02	-.08	.11	No
Past leadership to past job resources	.53	.45	.60	Yes
Past job resources to psychological empowerment	.14	.06	.23	Yes

It is clear from the above table that the majority of proposed path coefficients are significant. In addition the proportion of variance explained in subjective career success (dependent variable) is 21%.

However, the following paths are not significant:

- Transformational leadership to psychological empowerment
- Objective career success (current) to subjective career success
- Objective career success (past) to subjective career success

PLS Path Model 2 is shown in Figure 4.4 below.

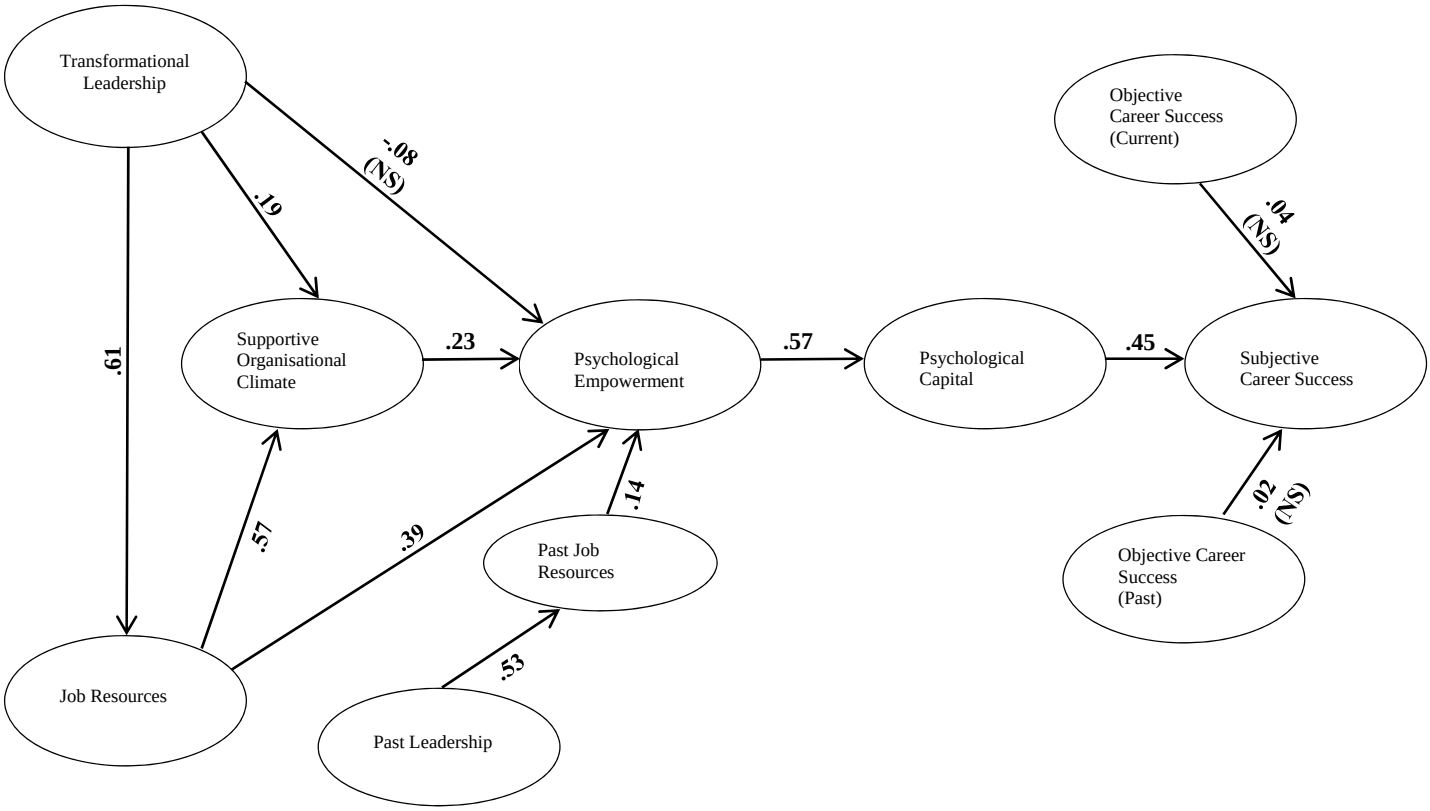

***Figure 4.4*. PLS path model: Model 2**

The following section reports on the results after the removal of the above non-significant paths.

Table 4.92

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 3)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Transformational Leadership	Individualised Inspiration (α= .92) Intellectual Stimulation (α= .85) Inspirational Motivation (α= .91) Individualised Consideration (α= .88)	.97	.88

Table 4.92 (continued).

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 3)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Job resources	Growth Opportunities (α= .85) Social Support (α= .74) Organisational Support (α= .91) Advancement (α= .86)	.86	.61
Supportive Organisational Climate	Management Competence (α= .90) Employee Commitment (α= .84) Cooperation/Coordination (α= .84) Cultural Sensitivity (α= .65)	.91	.71
Past leadership	α= .90	.93	.72
Past job resources	α= .90	.93	.73
Psychological empowerment	Competence (α= .83) Meaning (α= .87) Self-determination (α= .85) Impact (α= .86)	.88	.71
Psychological Capital	Self-efficacy (α= .84) Hope (α= .83) Resilience (α= .60) Optimism (α= .48)	.86	.61
Subjective Career Success	Career Satisfaction (α= .87) Internal Marketability (α= .85) External Marketability (α= .79)	.88	.65

From the above table it is clear that all of the variables meet the quality criteria associated with an acceptable outer model (i.e. measurement model). This is based on the fact that all of the variables have acceptable reliabilities (composite and Cronbach's Alpha), as well as average variance extracted (AVE above .5).

Table 4.93

PLS Path Modelling Results (Model 3)

	Path coefficient SmartPLS	Bootstrap lower SmartPLS	Bootstrap upper SmartPLS	Significance of SmartPLS
Transformational leadership to job resources	.61	.54	.68	Yes
Transformational leadership to supportive organisational climate	.19	.09	.28	Yes
Job resources to supportive organisational climate	.57	.49	.65	Yes
Job resources to psychological empowerment	.36	.23	.48	Yes
Past job resources to psychological empowerment	.15	.06	.24	Yes
Supportive organisational climate to psychological empowerment	.21	.08	.34	Yes
Psychological empowerment to psychological capital	.57	.51	.63	Yes
Psychological capital to subjective career success	.45	.37	.53	Yes
Past leadership to past job resources	.53	.45	.60	Yes

It is clear from the above table that all of the proposed path coefficients are significant. In addition the proportion of variance explained in subjective career success (dependent variable) is 20%.

Hair and Henseler (2013) suggest that when evaluating path coefficients that it advisable not to only emphasise significant paths, but also to determine how much variance is explained by these paths in a dependant variable. It therefore seems likely that although a path may be significant, it way be weak in terms of its influence on the dependant variable.

It was then decided to explore the impact of removing the following two weak paths:

- Past job resources to psychological empowerment (path coefficient = 0.15)
    - Due to the fact that past leadership is proposed to influence past job resources, this path will also be removed
    - In addition, in Model 1, the direct relationship between past leadership and psychological empowerment was also non-significant. Hence, no direct relationship will be explored in the following model.
- Transformational leadership to supportive organisational climate (path coefficient = 0.19).

In Model 1, the variance explained in psychological empowerment was 34%. After the repositioning of the non-significant path (i.e. past leadership to psychological empowerment), the variance explained in psychological empowerment (in model 2) was 33%. The removal of a non-significant path (i.e. transformational leadership to psychological empowerment) resulted in 33% of the variance being explained in psychological empowerment (model 3). The removal of the two weak, yet significant paths (i.e. transformational leadership to supportive organisational climate, and, past resources to psychological empowerment, including past leadership) resulted in 31% of the variance explained in psychological empowerment (model 4). Hence, the removal of the two weak paths resulted in a drop of 2% in the variance explained in psychological empowerment (Model 4).

In Model 1, the variance explained in supportive organisational climate was 49%. After the removal of the weak, yet significant, path between transformational leadership and supportive organisational climate, 47% of the variance was explained in supportive organisational climate (Model 4). Hence, the removal of this weak path resulted in a drop of 2% in the variance explained in supportive organisational climate (i.e. from 49% to 47%).

In Model 1, the variance explained in subjective career success was 21%. The removal of the non-significant paths as well as the two significant, yet weak, paths resulted in no change in the percentage of variance explained in subjective career success.

Given the above, it is clear that the removal of the significant, yet weak, paths had no major impact on the different dependent variables in the model with regard to the percentage of variance explained (Model 4). Although the path coefficient between supportive organisational climate to psychological empowerment is .21, this path is maintained in the following model due to its theoretical importance.

PLS Path Model 3 is shown in Figure 4.5 below

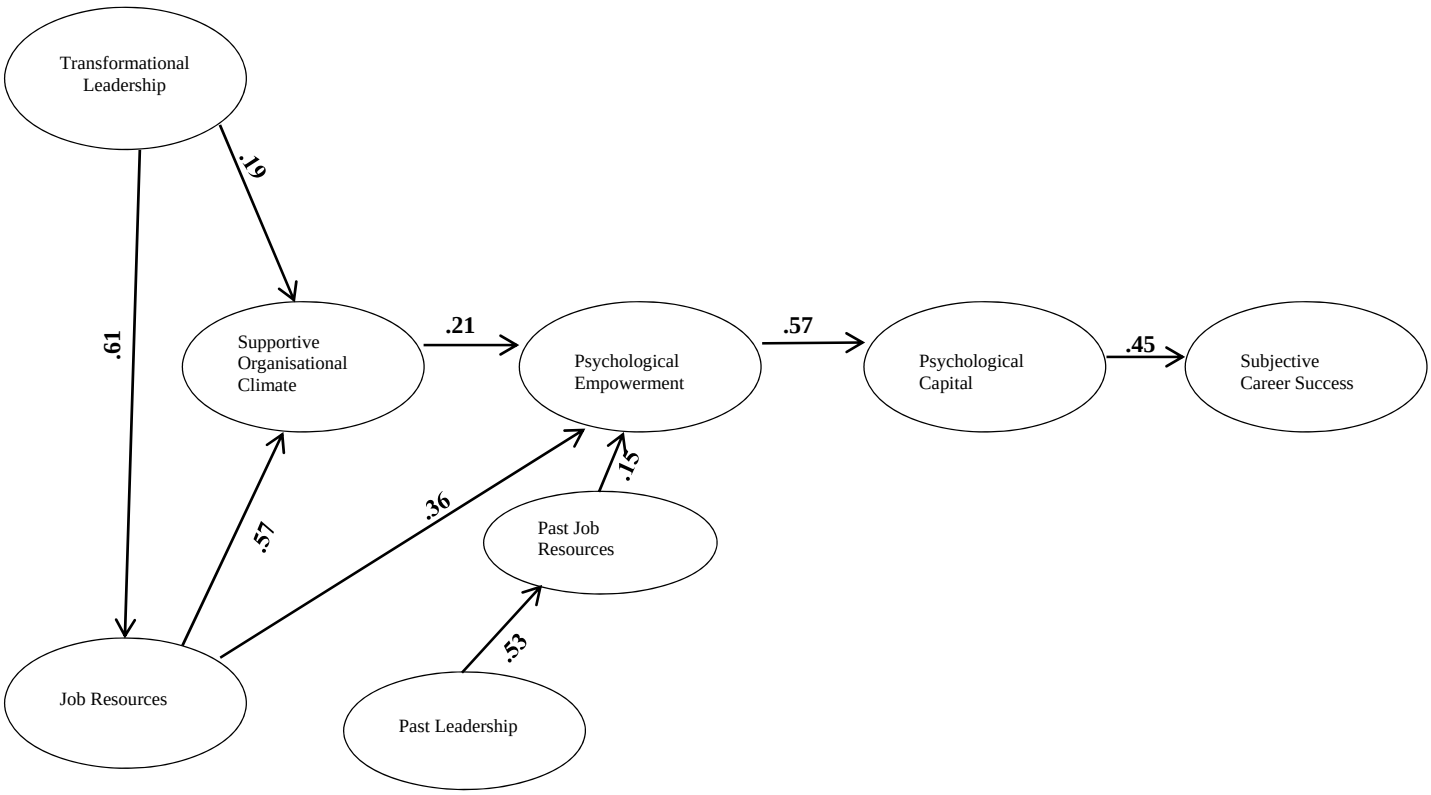

***Figure 4.5*. PLS path model: Model 3**

The following table reports on the outer model results for Model 4.

Table 4.94

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 4)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Transformational Leadership	Individualised Inspiration (α= .92) Intellectual Stimulation (α= .85) Inspirational Motivation (α= .91) Individualised Consideration (α= .88)	.97	.88
Job resources	Growth Opportunities (α= .85) Social Support (α= .74) Organisational Support (α= .91) Advancement (α= .86)	.86	.61
Supportive Organisational Climate	Management Competence and consistency (α= .90) Employee Commitment (α= .84) Cooperation/Coordination (α= .84) Cultural Sensitivity (α= .65)	.91	.71
Psychological empowerment	Competence (α= .83) Meaning (α= .87) Self-determination (α= .85) Impact (α= .86)	.88	.71

Table 4.94 (continued).

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 4)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Psychological Capital	Self-efficacy (α= .84) Hope (α= .83) Resilience (α= .60) Optimism (α= .48)	.86	.61
Subjective Career Success	Career Satisfaction (α= .87) Internal Marketability (α= .85) External Marketability (α= .79)	.88	.65

From the above table it is clear that all of the variables meet the quality criteria associated with an acceptable outer model (i.e. measurement model). This is based on the fact that all of the variables have acceptable reliabilities (composite and Cronbach's Alpha), as well as average variance extracted (AVE above .5).

In the following section, the PLS modelling results in combination with LISREL results will be presented. The rationale for using the covariance-based approach will also be explained.

Table 4.95

PLS Path Modelling Results (Model 4)

	Path coefficient LISREL	Significance of LISREL	Path coefficient SmartPLS	Bootstrap lower SmartPLS	Bootstrap upper SmartPLS	Significance of SmartPLS
Transformational leadership to job resources	.71	Yes	.61	.54	.68	Yes
Job resources to supportive organisational climate	.78	Yes	.68	.64	.73	Yes
Job resources to psychological empowerment	.42	Yes	.38	.26	.51	Yes
Supportive organisational climate to psychological empowerment	.21	Yes	.22	.10	.34	Yes
Psychological empowerment to psychological capital	.79	Yes	.57	.51	.63	Yes
Psychological capital to subjective career success	.67	Yes	.45	.37	.54	Yes

It is clear from the above table that all of the proposed path coefficients are significant. In addition the proportion of variance explained in subjective career success (dependent variable) is 20%.

PLS Path Model 4 is shown in Figure 4.6 below.

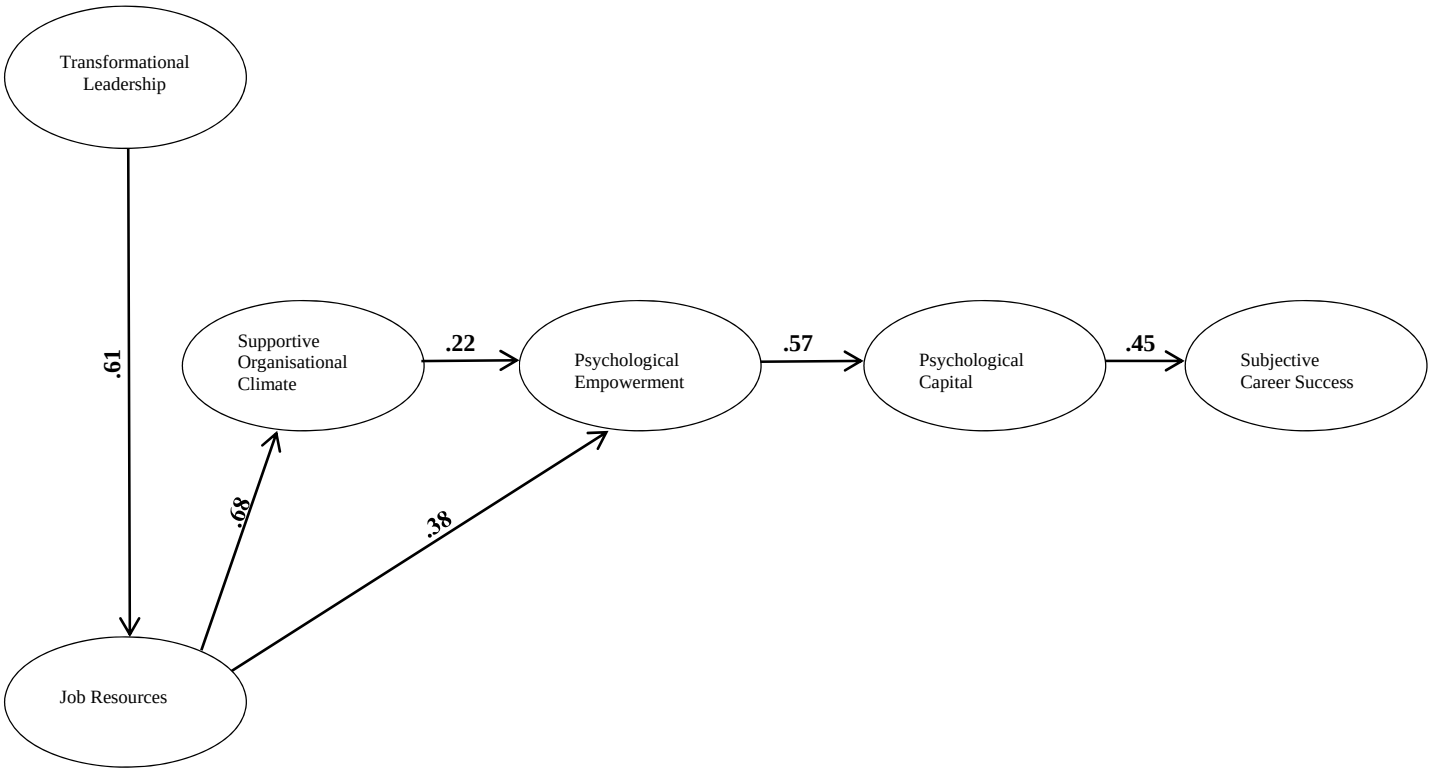

***Figure 4.6*. PLS path model: Model 4**

The following table provides the goodness-of-fit statistics as obtained from LISREL.

Table 4.96

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics: Structural Model (Model 4)

S-BX²	930.67
df	224
RMSEA	.08
	(.08; .09)
NFI	.93
CFI	.95
SRMR	.09

It is evident from the above table that applying the covariance-based structural equation modelling to model 4, the following observations about the goodness-of-fit can be made:

- When using the guidelines provided by (Hair et al., 2006) both the RMSEA and SRMR are within acceptable limits. In addition, good fit is suggested by the result reflected in the CFI, while an acceptable fit is evident on the basis of the NFI. (Hair et al., 2006). Given the fact that acceptable levels of fit associated with each of the constructs used in fitting this structural model (co-variance based) were reported earlier in this chapter, it is unlikely that the possible lack of fit is due to poorly operationalised constructs.
- However, modification indices can be consulted to determine which changes to the existing model will result in improved fit. Those modification indices that will lead to the greatest decrease in the overall model X^2 value should be investigated. Hence, LISREL was used to explore which paths can be added that will result in a better fitting model (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006).

Table 4.97

Modification Indices

	Supportive Organisational Climate	Job resources	Psychological Empowerment	Psychological Capital	Subjective Career Success
Supportive Organisational Climate	-	-	-	0.40	7.75
Job resources	0.05	-	5.02	6.31	32.31
Psychological Empowerment	-	-	-	0.09	7.28
Psychological Capital	0.13	1.31	-	-	5.27
Subjective Career Success	91.26	80.25	30.01	-	-
Transformational Leadership	0.25	-	11.37	0.05	38.34

From the above table it is evident that there are three possible paths that should be investigated resulting in an improvement in overall model fit. This is based on the fact

that the modification indices with the highest values should be explored. The paths that may lead to an improvement of the overall model fit are provided below:

- Supportive organisational climate to subjective career success
- Job resources to subjective career success
- Transformational leadership to subjective career success

The inclusion of the above three paths resulted in the need for revised goodness-of-fit statistics for both variance and covariance-based models.

The following table reports the outer model results for Model 5.

Table 4.98

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 5)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Transformational Leadership	Individualised Inspiration (α= .92) Intellectual Stimulation (α= .85) Inspirational Motivation (α= .91) Individualised Consideration (α= .88)	.88	.97
Job resources	Growth Opportunities (α= .85) Social Support (α= .74) Organisational Support (α= .91) Advancement (α= .86)	.86	.61

Table 4.98 (continued).

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 5)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Supportive Organisational Climate	Management Competence and Consistency (α= .90) Employee Commitment (α= .84) Cooperation/Coordination (α= .84) Cultural Sensitivity (α= .65)	.91	.71
Psychological empowerment	Competence (α= .83) Meaning (α= .87) Self-determination (α= .85) Impact (α= .86)	.88	.71
Psychological Capital	Self-efficacy (α= .84) Hope (α= .83) Resilience (α= .60) Optimism (α= .48)	.86	.61
Subjective Career Success	Career Satisfaction (α= .87) Internal Marketability (α= .85) External Marketability (α= .79)	.87	.64

From the above table it is clear that all of the variables meet the quality criteria associated with an acceptable outer model (i.e. measurement model). This is based on the fact that all of the variables have acceptable reliabilities (composite and Cronbach's Alpha) as well as average variance extracted (AVE above .5).

On the basis of acceptable fit in terms of the constructs used to evaluate the theoretical model, the following table provides information on the inner model results

associated with Model 5. In addition, the results obtained from the covariance-based approach, i.e. LISREL, is also integrated.

Table 4.99

PLS Path Modelling Results (Model 5)

	Path coefficient LISREL	Significance of LISREL	Path coefficient SmartPLS	Bootstrap lower SmartPLS	Bootstrap upper SmartPLS	Significance of SmartPLS
Transformational leadership to job resources	.71	Yes	.61	.54	.67	Yes
Job resources to supportive organisational climate	.79	Yes	.68	.63	.73	Yes
Job resources to psychological empowerment	.43	Yes	.39	.26	.50	Yes
Supportive organisational climate to psychological empowerment	.19	Yes	.22	.08	.34	Yes
Psychological empowerment to psychological capital	.76	Yes	.57	.51	.63	Yes
Psychological capital to subjective career success	.27	Yes	.25	.17	.35	Yes
Job resources to subjective career success	.42	Yes	.34	.23	.45	Yes

Table 4.99 (continued).

PLS Path Modelling Results (Model 5)

	Path coefficient LISREL	Significance of LISREL	Path coefficient SmartPLS	Bootstrap lower SmartPLS	Bootstrap upper SmartPLS	Significance of SmartPLS
Supportive organisational climate to subjective career success	.42	Yes	.23	.12	.33	Yes
Transformational leadership to subjective career success	-.0	No	-.02	-.11	.08	No

PLS Path Model 5 is shown in Figure 4.7 below.

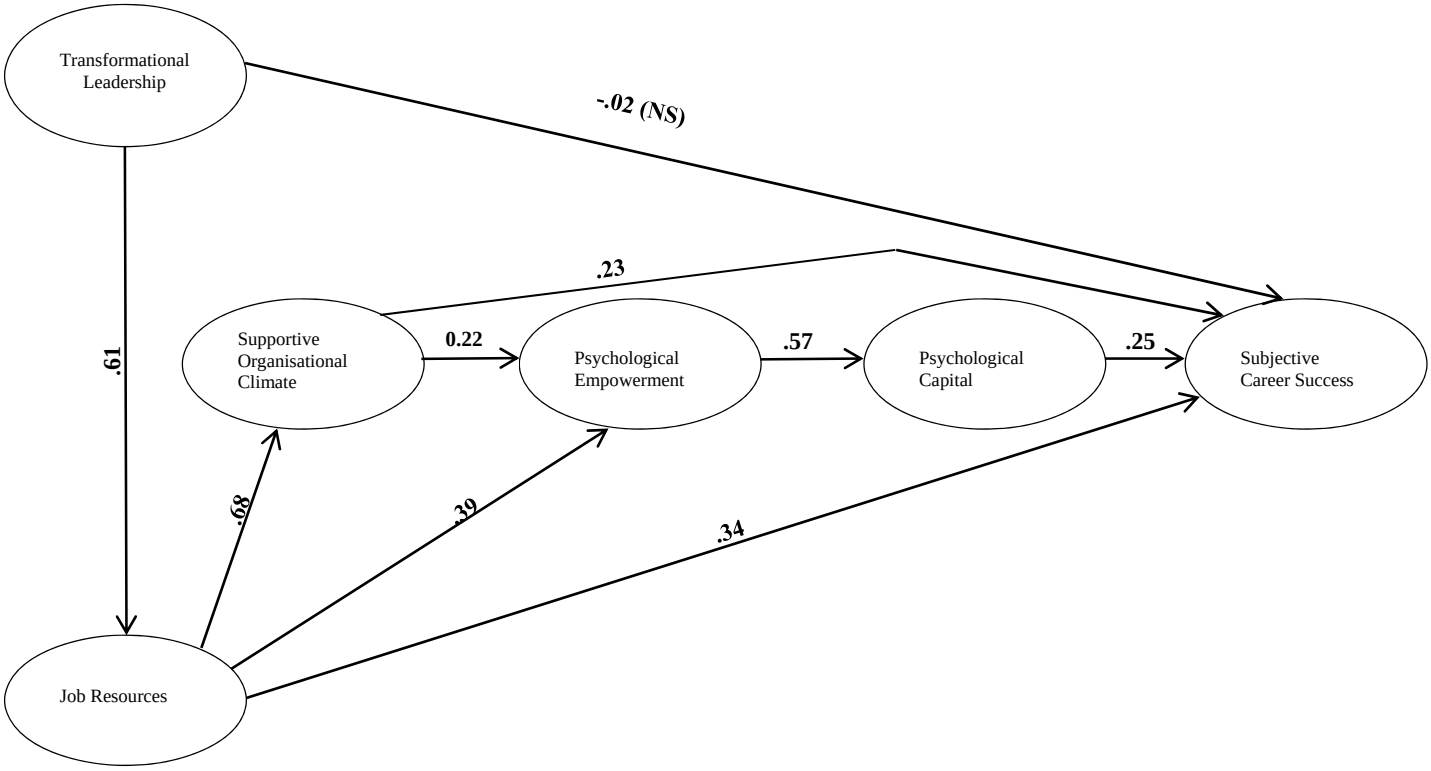

***Figure 4.7*. PLS path model: Model 5**

The following table provides the goodness-of-fit statistics as obtained from LISREL after the implementation of the suggestions of the modification indices.

Table 4.100

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics: Structural Model (Model 5)

S-BX²	783.98
df	221
RMSEA	.078
	(.072; .084)
NFI	.94
CFI	.96
SRMR	.069

From the above two tables, the following can be observed: Firstly, it is clear that only one of the three paths (suggested by the modification indices) was non-significant (transformational leadership to subjective career success). It is interesting to note that the latter path had the weakest impact on improving model fit as evidenced by the modification indices. Secondly, even with a non-significant path present, the overall model seems to fit the data fairly well.

The following table reports the outer model results for Model 6 excluding the non-significant path observed in Model 5.

Table 4.101

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 6)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Transformational Leadership	Individualised Inspiration (α= .92) Intellectual Stimulation (α= .85) Inspirational Motivation (α= .91) Individualised Consideration (α= .88)	.97	.88
Job resources	Growth Opportunities (α= .85) Social Support (α= .74) Organisational Support (α= .91) Advancement (α= .86)	.86	.61

Table 4.101 (continued).

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE (Model 6)

Latent Variable	Manifest Variables	Composite Reliability	AVE
Supportive Organisational Climate	Management Competence (α= .90) Employee Commitment (α= .84) Cooperation/Coordination (α= .84) Cultural Sensitivity (α= .65)	.91	.71
Psychological empowerment	Competence (α= .83) Meaning (α= .87) Self-determination (α= .85) Impact (α= .86)	.88	.71
Psychological Capital	Self-efficacy (α= .84) Hope (α= .83) Resilience (α= .60) Optimism (α= .48)	.86	.61
Subjective Career Success	Career Satisfaction (α= .87) Internal Marketability (α= .85) External Marketability (α= .79)	.87	.64

From the above table it is clear that all of the variables meet the quality criteria associated with an acceptable outer model (i.e. measurement model). This is based on the fact that all of the variables have acceptable reliabilities (composite and Cronbach's Alpha) as well as average variance extracted (AVE above .5).

On the basis of acceptable fit in terms of the constructs used to evaluate the theoretical model, the following table provides information on the inner model results

associated with Model 6. In addition, the results obtained from the covariance-based approach, i.e. LISREL, is also integrated.

Table 4.102

PLS Path Modelling Results (Model 6)

	Path coefficient LISREL	Significance of LISREL	Path coefficient SmartPLS	Bootstrap lower SmartPLS	Bootstrap upper SmartPLS	Significance of SmartPLS
Transformational leadership to job resources	.71	Yes	.61	.54	.67	Yes
Job resources to supportive organisational climate	.79	Yes	.68	.63	.73	Yes
Job resources to psychological empowerment	.42	Yes	.39	.26	.50	Yes
Supportive organisational climate to psychological empowerment	.19	Yes	.22	.09	.34	Yes
Psychological empowerment to psychological capital	.76	Yes	.57	.51	.63	Yes
Psychological capital to subjective career success	.29	Yes	.25	.15	.35	Yes
Job resources to subjective career success	.30	Yes	.33	.23	.42	Yes
Supportive organisational climate to subjective career success	.30	Yes	.22	.12	.32	Yes

The following table provides the goodness-of-fit statistics as obtained from LISREL for Model 6.

Table 4.103

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics: Structural Model (Model 6)

S-BX²	790.38
df	222
RMSEA	.08
	(.07; .08)
NFI	.94
CFI	.96
SRMR	.07

From the above two tables, the following can be observed: Firstly, it is clear that all the explored paths have significant path coefficients. Secondly, this revised model seems to fit the data fairly well.

In summary, the original model was evaluated using PLS-SEM. The latter provided evidence of both significant and non-significant paths associated with the model. Subsequent models (Models 2-3) removed non-significant and weak paths and re-evaluated a model consisting only of significant paths. This iterative process resulted in a final model (Model 4) consisting of only significant paths. To investigate the possibility of additional paths, modification indices were consulted. This resulted in the need to use the covariance-based approach (LISREL) in combination with PLS-SEM. Three additional paths were identified by the modification indices. A subsequent model (Model 5) investigated these, of which one turned out to be non-significant. Hence, model 6 only consisted of significant paths. This model is depicted in Figure 4.8 below.

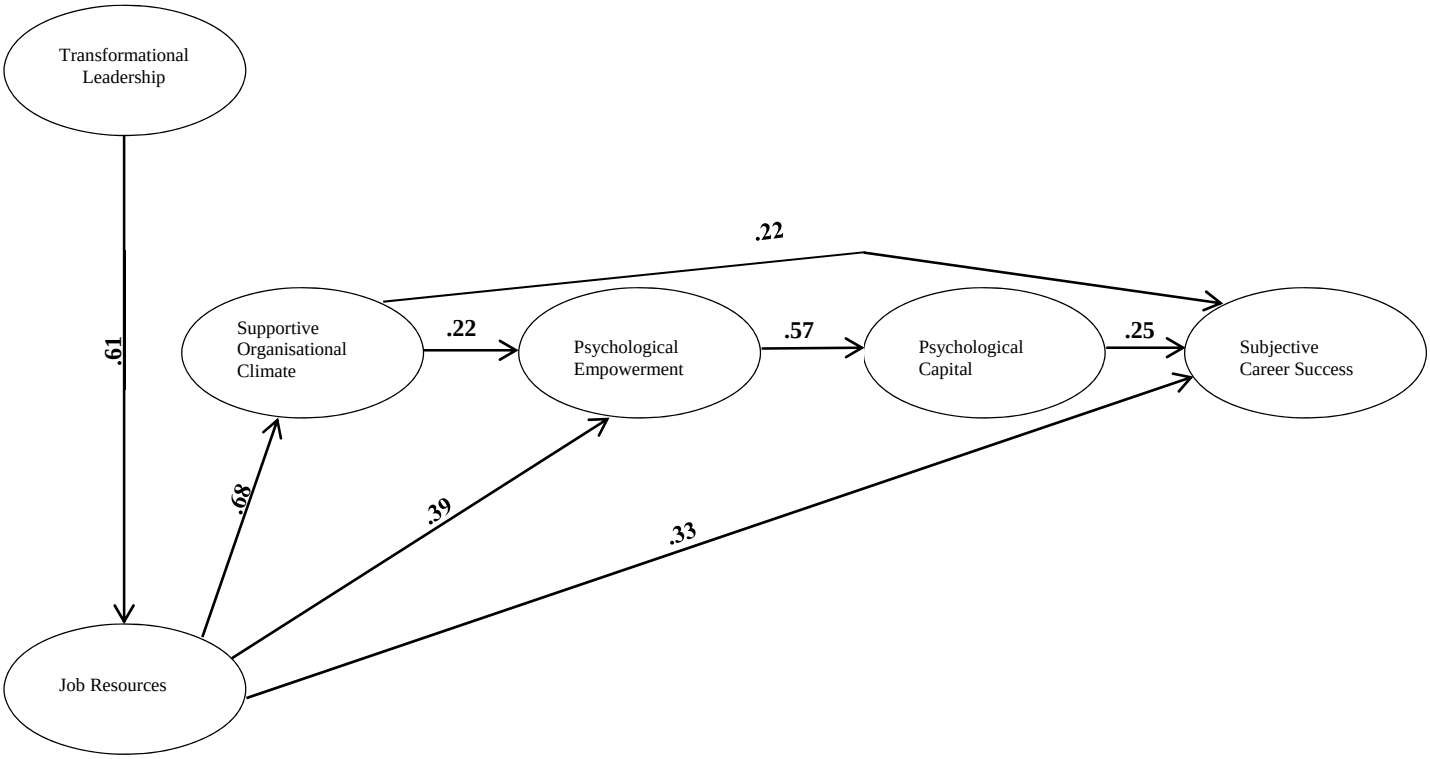

***Figure 4.8*. PLS path model (Final): Model 6**

The following table provides a comparative summary of the goodness-of-fit statistics associated with each of the last three models.

Table 4.104

Goodness-of-Fit Statistics: Comparative Summary

	Model 4	**Model 5**	**Model 6**
***S-BX*²**	930.67	783.98	790.38
df	224	221	222
RMSEA	.087	.078	.078
	(.08; .09)	(.07; .08)	(.07; .08)
NFI	.93	.94	.94
CFI	.95	.96	.96
SRMR	.096	.069	.070
AIC	1034.67	893.98	898.38
R² (SmartPLS)	21%	42%	42%

It is evident from the above table that the suggested modifications to the model resulted in improved fit – especially in terms of the Akaike Information Criterion, S-BX^2, and R^2.

In order to obtain additional supporting information related to the paths suggested in the optimal model, Pearson correlational analysis and multiple regression were utilised. In the following section, the Pearson correlation coefficients are reported.

4.5.2 Results of Pearson correlation analysis.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is a standardised measure of the strength of the relationship between variables and was used in this study to determine the strength of the relationship between the constructs transformational leadership, past leadership, job resources, past job resources, supportive organisational climate, psychological empowerment, psychological capital, and career success. The correlations between the constructs are summarised in Table 4.105 using their total scores.

Table 4.105

Correlation Matrix of the Various Constructs

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Transformational Leadership	1.00	.62	.52	.28	.19	.06	.10	.15	.03	.32
2. Job Resources	.62	1.00	.69	.52	.36	.15	.22	.22	.06	.51
3. Supportive Organisational Climate	.52	.69	1.00	.48	.29	.17	.18	.19	.06	.47
4. Psychological Empowerment	.28	.52	.48	1.00	.50	.15	.24	.16	.07	.42
5. Psychological Capital	.19	.36	.29	.50	1.00	.14	.30	.11	.02	.42
6. Past Leadership	.06	.15	.17	.15	.14	1.00	.51	.05	.05	.25
7. Past Job Resources	.10	.22	.18	.24	.30	.51	1.00	.02	.10	.29
8. Objective Career Success (Current)	.15	.22	.19	.16	.11	.05	.02	1.00	.27	.12
9. Objective Career Success (Past)	.03	.06	.06	.07	.02	.05	.10	.27	1.00	.05
10. Subjective Career Success	.32	.51	.47	.42	.42	.25	.29	.12	.05	1.00

Note: Red- significant ($p<.05$); Black- non-significant.

From the above table it is clear that the dependent variable (subjective career success) is significantly correlated with all of the independent variables, except for objective career success (past). More specifically subjective career success has a moderate correlation (substantial relationship) with the following variables: Job resources, supportive organisational climate, psychological empowerment, and psychological capital.

In comparison, subjective career success has a low correlation (definite but small relationship) with the following variables: Transformational leadership, past leadership, and past job resources.

Finally, there is a slight (almost no relationship) between subjective career success and objective career success (current). All the above effect sizes associated with the correlations are based on Guilford's informal interpretation of *r* (Guilford as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002).

In addition to the above direct relationships, the previous table also provides information on the bivariate relationships as proposed by the sequential model – see shaded cells.

In the following section, the results of analyses done to determine if any of the constructs are significant predictors of others are presented.

4.5.3 Results of multiple regression analysis.

It was decided to conduct a stepwise multiple regression to determine which of the five independent variables (as suggested by structural Model 6) were significant predictors of career success. The results of the stepwise multiple regression analysis are presented in this section. In addition to the results obtained in Model 5 and 6, the stepwise multiple regression results will also assist in predicting career success.

The regression model includes transformational leadership, job resources, supportive organisational climate, psychological empowerment, and psychological capital as the

predictors (independent variables) of career success (dependent variable). The results of the multiple regression analysis are explicated in Table 4.106 below.

Table 4.106

Multiple Regression Model Summary (Dependent Variable; Career Success)

R= 0.594; R^2= 0.353; Adjusted R^2= 0.348; p=0.0000 Std.Error of estimate: 5.764			
Variable	**Standardised Beta Coefficient**	**Contribution to R^2**	**Cumulative R^2**
Job Resources (Current)	.270	.265	.265
Psychological Capital	.264	.064	.329
Supportive Organisational Climate	.213	.024	.353

From the above table, it is evident that psychological capital, job resources, and supportive organisational climate are the only significant predictors of subjective career success. The strongest predictor of subjective career success is job resources (current) (27%), followed by psychological capital (6%), and supportive organisational climate (2%). These three independent variables explain 35% of the variance in career success. This model is significant.

4.6 Summary

A total of 30 qualitative interviews were conducted during Phase 1 of the current study. The purpose of the qualitative phase was to determine the breadth of coverage of the selected variables. On the basis of thematic analysis, it was deemed not necessary to include additional constructs/variables in the Phase 2 of the study. However, five additional items were added to the following two constructs (i.e. job resources and supportive organisational climate).

The purpose of Phase 2 of the current study was to investigate the psychometric properties of the constructs. All ten of the constructs were evaluated using confirmatory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis was used where appropriate. These results seemed to confirm the appropriateness of the factor structures, as well

as their reliabilities in the sample (n= 220) (Phase 2). As highlighted during Phase 1, five additional items were included in the following constructs (job resources and supportive organisational climate). The inclusion of these additional items did not have any negative impact on the original factor structures of these constructs. These structures were maintained for analyses conducted in the Main Study (Phase 3).

The purpose of Phase 3 was to evaluate the various propositions for the current study. Before evaluating these propositions, it was necessary to determine the psychometric properties associated with each of the ten variables within another sample (n=418) (Phase 3). These results seemed to confirm the appropriateness of the factor structures as well as their reliabilities in the sample.

Bivariate correlational analysis revealed that the dependent variable (subjective career success) was significantly correlated with all of the independent variables, except for objective career success (past). More specifically, subjective career success had a moderate correlation (substantial relationship) with the following variables: job resources, supportive organisational climate, psychological empowerment, and psychological capital. In comparison, subjective career success had a low correlation (definite but small relationship) with the following variables: Transformational leadership, past leadership, and past job resources. Finally, there was a slight (almost no relationship) between subjective career success and objective career success (current).

Proposition 13 focussed on exploring the optimal combination of variables that could explain and predict subjective career success. To evaluate the optimal model, both variance (exploratory) and covariance-based (confirmatory) structural equation modelling was used. Using the conceptual model (as proposed in Chapter 1 & 2), the current study used partial least squares to evaluate the appropriateness of the initial model. Non-significant paths were removed during subsequent analyses. The latter resulted in a model consisting of only significant path coefficients. This latter model was also evaluated using the covariance-based approach to structural equation modelling. The results suggested a relatively good fitting model, leaving some room for improvement. To explore the possibility of improving model fit, modification

indices were consulted. Three additional paths were suggested (i.e. three direct paths to subjective career success). The inclusion of these three paths resulted in a marked improvement in model fit – specifically in terms of the Akaike Information Criterion, S-BX^2, and R^2. However, one path failed to reach significance and was hence removed. This resulted in identifying an optimal model representing factors that influence subjective career success.

Based on the step-wise multiple regression results, it was found that psychological capital, job resources and supportive organisational climate were significant predictors of subjective career success. These three variables explained 35% of the variance in subjective career success resulting in a significant regression model.

The implications of these findings will be interpreted and discussed in Chapter 5, together with recommendations for intervention and to improve future research in the field of career psychology.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 Introduction

In this final chapter, the research results, as presented in Chapter 4, are discussed and interpreted. The chapter commences with a discussion of the conclusions regarding the results of Phase 1. Next, a discussion on the quality of the psychometric properties of the measuring instruments used in Phase 2 and Phase 3 is provided. This is followed by a discussion of the unfolding conceptual model highlighting both significant and non-significant paths (i.e. results). The chapter concludes with a discussion of the limitations of this study and recommendations for interventions and further research.

5.2 Conclusions regarding the Results of the Qualitative Phase (Phase 1)

As discussed in Chapter 4, the primary purpose of the qualitative research analysis was to merely seek (a) confirmation that the instruments/constructs utilised in the current study cover relevant issues that are seen as important, as well as (b) establish whether there were themes that were not adequately covered by the selected instruments.

The results of the qualitative research confirmed that similar themes have emerged as those included in the three instruments used to measure the organisational constructs in the current study, namely, (1) the adapted version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Engelbrecht & Chamberlain, 2005; Krafft, et al., 2004), originally developed by Bass and later revised by Bass and Avolio (1994), (2) the Job Demands-Resources Scale (JDRS) (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005), and the Supportive Organisational Climate Questionnaire (Rogg et al., 2001).

Hence, the established content validity and the appropriateness of the instruments chosen for the current study in the South African work environment were confirmed.

In addition to the above, most of the CFA-results seem to suggest that the constructs behaved fairly well in a South-African context – with a few RMSEA values outside of the acceptable range.

5.3 Conclusions regarding the Psychometric Properties of the Instruments

For each of the constructs confirmatory factor analysis was conducted and utilised to confirm the original structure of the constructs. In those instances where confirmatory factor analysis results suggested a poor fit between the observed data and the theoretical model, an alternative model was explored. A discussion of the results related to the confirmatory factor analysis, as well as the reliability coefficients for each construct follows.

5.3.1 Transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership was measured using an adapted version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Engelbrecht & Chamberlain, 2005; Krafft et al., 2004), originally developed by Bass (1985) and later revised by Bass and Avolio (1994). Transformational leadership was assessed via four subscales, (1) idealised influence, (2) inspirational motivation, (3) intellectual stimulation, and (4) individualised consideration.

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 for each of the dimensions of the transformational leadership construct, it is clear that Phase 3 results had slightly better reliabilities: Idealised influence (.90 vs .92); inspirational motivation (.88 vs .91); intellectual stimulation (.85 vs .85); individualised consideration (.84 vs .88).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was carried out on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (1994). The CFA results for Phase 2 and Phase 3 were as follows: RMSEA (.12 vs .07), SRMR (.05 vs .04), NFI (.95 vs .98), and CFI (.96 vs .99). It is clear that Phase 3 provided better goodness-of-fit related to the MLQ.

These results seem to be comparable to those obtained by other researchers. Engelbrecht, Van Aswegen and Theron (2005) reported Cronbach alpha values for the transformational leadership subscales (.75 < α < .87). These values lie above the generally accepted value of .70 (Nunnally, 1967). In addition, the goodness-of-fit associated with the MLQ as obtained in Phase 3 of the current study seem to be comparable with those reported by Engelbrecht et al. (2005). All four of the transformational leadership subscales passed the unidimensionality test. All factors had satisfactory factor loadings (.50 < λ < .86) on the dimensions they were originally allocated to.

The goodness-of-fit associated with the unidimensional structure for transformational leadership (as explored in Phase 2) were not better than that obtained using the original four-factor conceptualisation obtained in Phase 3. It can therefore be concluded that the MLQ is a valid representation of the four dimensions associated with the Transformational Leadership construct with acceptable reliabilities. The results based on this instrument can therefore be viewed as accurate for the current study.

5.3.2 Past leadership.

Five self-developed items were used to measure past leadership. The existing theory seems to provide support for the possible impact of past occurrences (e.g. past leadership) on current and future career success. This is illustrated by the notion of careers viewed as a journey of transitions over one's working life, (Hall, 1976, 1996; Sullivan, 1999; Super 1980), in which there is an implicit understanding that what has already occurred, (e.g., the role of past leadership), will affect current and future career success (Feldman et al., 2007; Super, 1980).

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 associated with the past leadership construct, it is clear that Phase 3 results had a slightly lower reliability (.92 vs .90), however still very high.

Confirmatory factor analysis was carried out on the self-developed past leadership construct. The CFA results for Phase 2 and Phase 3 were as follows: RMSEA (.11 vs

.14), SRMR (.03 vs .04), NFI (.99 vs .98), and CFI (.99 vs .98). It is clear that Phase 3 provided similar goodness-of-fit related to the past leadership construct as obtained in Phase 2. However, the value associated with RMSEA (.14) is above the recommended level (Hair et al., 2006). When examining the goodness-of-fit statistics obtained in the current study (Phase 3), the unidimensionality of past leadership is supported. Hence it can therefore be concluded that the items measuring past leadership seem to be reliable and valid for the purposes of the current study.

5.3.3 Job resources.

Job resources were measured by an adapted version of the Job Demands-Resources Scale (JDRS) developed by Jackson and Rothmann (2005). The version used in the current study comprises 38 items (three of which were self-developed). The current study focused on the job resources items and their anticipated role in subjective career success as well as the other related variables. This decision was based on the conceptual model which was developed from theory as discussed in Chapter 2. The job demands items, for example, which are associated with work pressure, role overload, and emotional demands, were excluded from the the JDRS for the purposes of the current study as they were not considered relevant to the current study.

The current study only utilised the questions associated with the three job resource dimensions, namely growth opportunities, advancement, and organisational support. During the Instrument Development Phase (Phase 2), it was established that a revised factor structure, consisting of four dimensions, fitted the data the best. These four dimensions were (Growth Opportunities, Social Support, Organisational Support and Advancement). Hence, this factor structure was evaluated during the Main Study (Phase 3).

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 for each of the dimensions of the four-factor structure associated with the job resources construct, it is clear that Phase 3 results were consistent with Phase 2: Growth opportunities (.85 vs .85), social support (.77 vs .74), organisational support (.91 vs .91), and advancement (.85 vs .86).

Confirmatory factor analysis was carried out on the revised Job Demands-Resources Scale (JDRS) developed by Jackson and Rothmann (2005). The CFA results for Phase 2 and Phase 3 were as follows: RMSEA (.08 vs .09), SRMR (.09 vs .10), NFI (.90 vs .92), and CFI (.93 vs .94). It is clear that Phase 3 provided better goodness-of-fit with regards to CFI and NFI, while fairly similar goodness-of-fit with regards to RMSEA and SRMR when compared to Phase 2 results.

The results obtained in the current study seem to reflect similar reliabilities as those obtained by other researchers. The original scale (Rothman et al., 2006), indicated acceptable alpha coefficients ranging from .76 to .92.

Jackson et al. (2006) conducted a principal component analysis on their 42-item version, which showed four factors and which explained 40 % of the variance. Subsequently, the four factors of the JDR scale were subjected to a second-order principle component analysis. Two factors which explained 73.99 % of the variance were extracted. Because oblique rotation showed that the factors were not strongly related (r= - .18), it was decided to use principal factor analysis with a Varimax rotation. Overload (.90) formed the first factor (labelled job demands), while organisational support (.84), growth opportunities (.86), and advancement (.66) formed the second factor (labelled job resources).

The CFA results obtained by other researchers seem to be slightly better than the results obtained in the current study. Schaufeli, Bakker and Van Rhenen (2009) conducted a CFA on the entire Job Demands-Resources Scale (JDRS) consisting of both job demands and resources. They found the following goodness-of-fit statistics for the two-factor model (GFI= .87, RMSEA= .04, NNFI= .96, and CFI= .97).

Although there seems to be room for improvement, it can be concluded that the Job Demands-Resources Scale (JDRS) seems to be a valid representation of the four dimensions associated with the job resources construct with acceptable reliabilities. The results based on this instrument can therefore be viewed as accurate for the current study.

5.3.4 Past job resources.

Five self-developed items were used to measure past job resources. As similarly referred to in an earlier section dealing with past leadership, theory seems to support the impact of past occurrences, (e.g. past job resources) on current and future career success. This is illustrated by the notion of careers viewed as a journey of transitions over one's working life, (Hall, 1976, 1996; Sullivan, 1999; Super 1980), in which there is an implicit understanding that what has already occurred, (e.g., the role of past job resources), will affect current and future career success (Feldman et al., 2007; Super, 1980).

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 associated with the past job resources construct, it is clear that Phase 2 and Phase 3 results (.92 vs .90) are fairly similar and very high.

Confirmatory factor analysis was carried out on the self-developed past job resources construct. The CFA results for Phase 2 and Phase 3 were as follows: RMSEA (.09 vs .12), SRMR (.04 vs .04), NFI (.99 vs .98), and CFI (.99 vs .99).

It is clear that Phase 3 provided similar goodness-of-fit related to the past job resources construct as obtained in Phase 2. However, the value associated with RMSEA (.12) is above the recommended level (Hair et al., 2006). When examining the goodness-of-fit statistics obtained in the current study (Phase 3), the unidimensionality of past job resources is supported. Hence it can therefore be concluded that the items measuring past job resources seem to be reliable and valid for the purposes of the current study.

5.3.5 Supportive organisational climate.

Supportive organisational climate was measured by utilising the supportive organisational climate questionnaire developed by Rogg et al. (2001).

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 for each of the dimensions of the supportive organisational climate construct, it is clear that Phase 3 results had slightly better reliabilities with regards to: managerial competence (.90 vs

.90), employee commitment (.82 vs .84), and cooperation/coordination (.81 vs .84). There was much improvement with regards to cultural sensitivity (.57 vs .65).

Confirmatory factor analysis was carried out on the supportive organisational climate questionnaire developed by Rogg et al. (2001). The CFA results for Phase 2 and Phase 3 were as follows: RMSEA (.08 vs .07), SRMR (.08 vs .06), NFI (.95 vs .98), and CFI (.97 vs .98). It is clear that Phase 3 provided better goodness-of-fit related to the supportive organisational climate questionnaire.

The results obtained in the current study seem to reflect similar and better results than those obtained by other researchers. Rogg and his colleagues (2001) found that coefficient alpha for these measures ranged from .80 to .90. They fitted a four-factor model for supportive organisational climate. The following dimensions were included in their model: Managerial Competence, Employee Commitment, Cooperation/Coordination, and Customer Orientation. Their model seemed to fit the data well in some respects (X^2= 694.58, *df*= 185, RMSEA= .04, NNFI= .86, and CFI= .88). However, the value associated with RMSEA (.07) as found in Phase 3 of the current study is slightly higher than that reported by the developers of the questionnaire (Rogg et al., 2001).

It can therefore be concluded that the supportive organisational climate instrument seems to be a valid representation of the four dimensions associated with the Supportive Organisational Climate construct with acceptable reliabilities and goodness-of-fit statistics. The results based on this instrument can therefore be viewed as accurate for the current study.

5.3.6 Psychological empowerment.

Psychological empowerment was measured by utilising Spreitzer's (1995) 12-item psychological empowerment scale to measure individual perceptions of empowerment.

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 for each of the dimensions of the psychological empowerment construct, it is clear that both Phase 2

and Phase 3 results were fairly similar with regards to their reliabilities: competence (.80 vs .83), meaning (.87 vs .87), self-determination (.85 vs .85), and impact (.87 vs .86).

Confirmatory factor analysis was carried out on the psychological empowerment instrument developed by Spreitzer (1995). The CFA results for Phase 2 and Phase 3 were as follows: RMSEA (.09 vs .11), SRMR (.06 vs .06), NFI (.97 vs .97), and CFI (.98 vs .97). It is clear that Phase 2 provided slightly better goodness-of-fit related to the psychological empowerment construct.

The results obtained in the current study seem to reflect better reliabilities as well as goodness-of-fit associated with a four-factor model. Spreitzer (1995) found that the reliability coefficients for the overall empowerment construct in two different samples ranged between .62 and .72. In the same study Spreitzer (1995) evaluated a second-order factor structure (i.e. the relationship between empowerment and its four sub-dimensions) obtaining the following fit indices, namely SRMR= .07, AGFI= .87, and NNFI= .98.

It can therefore be concluded that the psychological empowerment scale seems to be a valid representation of the four dimensions associated with the psychological empowerment construct with acceptable reliabilities and goodness-of-fit statistics. The results based on this instrument can therefore be viewed as accurate for the current study.

5.3.7 Psychological capital.

PsyCap (i.e. optimism, self-efficacy, resilience, and hope) was measured using the PCQ-24 developed by Luthans et al. (2007).

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 for each of the dimensions of the psychological capital construct, it is clear that there was a slight improvement in the reliabilities obtained in Phase 3 when compared to Phase 2: self-efficacy (.79 vs .84); hope (.82 vs .83). There was a big improvement in the reliability

from Phase 2 to Phase 3 with regards to resilience (.49 vs .60). However, the reliability estimate associated with optimism remains low (.53 vs .48).

Confirmatory factor analysis was carried out on the psychological capital instrument developed by Luthans and his colleagues (2007). The CFA results for Phase 2 and Phase 3 were as follows: RMSEA (.05 vs .06), SRMR (.08 vs .07), NFI (.94 vs .94), and CFI (.98 vs .98). It is clear that Phase 3 provided fairly similar results in comparison to Phase 2. It is clear that the goodness-of-fit statistics seem to be indicative of acceptable model fit.

Luthans and his colleagues (2007) found that the overall PsyCap had a reliability of .88. In evaluating a second-order factor structure (i.e. the relationship between PsyCap and its four sub-dimensions), they found the following goodness-of-fit statistics: RMSEA (.048), CFI (.92), and SRMR (.06). During the construct validation study of the PCQ-24 (Luthans, Avolio, et al., 2007), the following reliability coefficients were obtained: Hope (α= .72), resilience (α= .71), self-efficacy (α= .75), and optimism (α= .74).

When compared to the results reported (reliabilities and goodness-of-fit) by Luthans and his colleagues (2007), the current study seems to reflect similar reliabilities (except with regard to optimism and resilience). In addition to the reliabilities, the goodness-of-fit associated with a four-factor model obtained in Phase 3 also seems to be better than Luthans et al. (2007) - however, the value of SRMR (0.08) is slightly higher, which may leave some room for improvement.

It is clear that although the current study (Phase 3) obtained better reliability results with regard to hope and self-efficacy, the reliabilities associated with the two remaining dimensions need to be interpreted with caution. Although these two of the dimensions have reliabilities which are less than favourable, this did not seem to have a negative impact on the goodness-of-fit of the measurement model. The results based on this instrument can therefore be viewed as accurate for the current study, bearing in mind the two dimensions with lower reliabilities.

5.3.8 Objective career success.

Objective career success was measured in terms of the criterion of salary (Thorndike, 1934) and promotion (Thorndike, 1963). Four self-developed items were used to measure objective career success - two items for salary, and two items for promotion. However two non-significant items pertaining to promotion were removed in Phase 3 (See Chapter 4). Hence, objective career success (current) was conceptualised using a single indicator for salary increases while objective career success (past) was conceptualised by an item measuring salary (past).

Good practice suggests at that at least three items per dimension are required to provide adequate identification of a construct. The above guideline is also considered as the minimum coverage of a variable's theoretical domain (Hair et al., 2011, p. 698). It was therefore not regarded as advisable to estimate both reliability as well as goodness-of-fit using the more traditional techniques (i.e. Cronbach's Alpha and CFA).

The variance-based approach was used to determine the quality of measurement for objective career success (current and past). The analysis suggested the removal of the non-significant items (non-significant loadings), namely salaries (past) and promotions (past).

The current study (Phase 3) seems to suggest an acceptable level of reliability associated with these two items that measured objective career success (current): (Average Variance Extracted = .62; Composite Reliability = .77). In contrast the obtained results for the measure of objective career success (past) seem to suggest room for improvement (Average Variance Extracted= .50; Composite Reliability= .40). Generally in practice, additional salary increases received over and above normal annual salary increases are viewed as short-term indicators of career success. In comparison, promotions do not usually occur as frequently as additional salary increases. Hence it was decided to subsequently use only a single item to measure objective career success (current), and single item to measure objective career success (past).

5.3.9 Subjective career success.

The measurement of subjective career success consisted of (1) perceived career success, (i.e. career satisfaction) (Greenhaus et al. (1990), (2) perceived internal marketability (Johnson, 2001), and (3) perceived external marketability (Johnson, 2001).

When comparing the reliability coefficients of Phase 2 and Phase 3 for each of the dimensions of the subjective career success construct, it is clear that there was a slight improvement in the reliabilities for perceived internal marketability (.82 vs .85) as well as perceived external marketability (.71 vs .79). There was a slight decrease in the reliability from Phase 2 to Phase 3 with regards to career satisfaction (.89 vs .87).

Confirmatory factor analysis was carried out on the subjective career success measure. The CFA results for Phase 2 and Phase 3 were as follows: RMSEA (.06 vs .07), SRMR (.06 vs .06), NFI (.97 vs .97), and CFI (.98 vs .98). It is clear that Phase 3 provided fairly similar results in comparison to Phase 2. It is clear that the goodness-of-fit statistics seem to be indicative of acceptable model fit.

In a study by Eby et al., (2003) career satisfaction had a reliability of .91. Perceived internal marketability was measured with three items adapted from Johnson (2001) with the coefficient alpha being .73. Perceived external marketability was measured by three similar items adapted from Johnson (2001) with the coefficient alpha being .74. Johnson (2001) reports CFA statistics as follows: CFI= .92, GFI= .88, RMR= .10, and RMSEA= .10.

When comparing the results obtained in Phase 3 of the current study with that reported by Eby et al. (2003), the results seem to reflect better reliabilities (with the exception of career satisfaction, which was slightly lower). The goodness-of-fit indices associated with this three-dimensional model are also better than those reported by Eby et al. (2003).

It can therefore be concluded that the subjective career success construct is well represented by the three dimensions. The results based on this instrument can therefore be viewed as accurate for the current study.

In the following section, the research questions of the current study will be answered.

5.4 Explanations offered for the Relationships in the Conceptual Model

Structural equation modelling was conducted through the variance-based approach (Model 1 to Model 6) and the covariance-based approach (Model 4 to Model 6). In this study, structural equation modelling focused on the prediction of subjective career success through path analysis. In this section, the path coefficients will be discussed against the backdrop of existing literature, where it exists for the respective constructs.

The following table highlights the propositions included in the final optimal structural model (Model 6).

Table 5.1

Propositions and Modification Indices included in Final Optimal Model

Propositions confirmed	
Proposition 1	Transformational leadership is positively related to job resources.
Proposition 5	Job resources are positively related to a supportive organisational climate.
Proposition 6	Job resources are positively related to psychological empowerment.
Proposition 8	A supportive organisational climate is positively related to psychological empowerment.
Proposition 9	Psychological empowerment is positively related to psychological capital (PsyCap).

Table 5.1 (continued).

Propositions and Modification Indices included in Final Optimal Model

Propositions confirmed	
Proposition 10	Psychological capital (PsyCap) is positively related to subjective career success.
Modification Index	Job resources are positively related to subjective career success.
Modification Index	A supportive organisational climate is positively related to subjective career success.

The following table highlights the propositions that were excluded from the final optimal model.

Table 5.2

Propositions and Modification Index excluded from Final Optimal Model

Propositions excluded from the optimal model	
Proposition 2 (Model 3) (Significant, yet weak)	Transformational leadership is positively related to a supportive organisational climate.
Proposition 3 (Model 1)	Transformational leadership is positively related to psychological empowerment.
Proposition 4 (Model 1)	Past leadership is positively related to psychological empowerment.
Proposition 7 (Model 3) (Significant, yet weak)	Past job resources are positively related to psychological empowerment.

Table 5.2 (continued).

Propositions and Modification Index excluded from Final Optimal Model

Propositions excluded from the optimal model	
Proposition 11 (Model 1)	Objective career success (current) is positively related to subjective career success.
Proposition 12 (Model 1)	Objective career success (past) is positively related to subjective career success.
Modification Index (Model 5)	Transformational leadership is positively related to subjective career success.

5.4.1 The dynamics of the relationship between transformational leadership and job resources.

Transformational leadership consists of four dimensions (i.e. idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration) (Bass, 1999). Job resources, on the other hand, include four dimensions (i.e. organisational support, social support, growth opportunities and advancement) (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005).

It was proposed that transformational leadership is positively related to job resources (Proposition 1). Supporting this proposition, the current study (Phase 3) found that both the bivariate correlation (r= .62), as well as the path coefficient (.61) reflected in Model 6, were statistically significant. It is clear that both these values are similar in size.

Liaw et al. (2010, pp. 485-486) found a significant positive bivariate correlation (r= .68) between transformational leadership and perceived supervisor support (latter being an aspect of job resources). These results seem to be in line with the results of the current study. In addition these authors also found a significant positive bivariate correlation (r= .25) between transformational leadership and co-worker support. Although the results of the study by Liaw et al. (2010) support the findings of the current study, the values are smaller.

A study by Cheung and Wong (2011, p. 664) found a significant positive bivariate correlation (r= .20) between transformational leadership and task support (the latter being an aspect of job resources). In addition these authors also found a significant bivariate correlation (r= .17) between transformational leadership and relations support (the latter being an aspect of job resources). Although these values are smaller, the results seem to support those obtained in the current study.

Den Hartog and Belschak (2012, p. 197) found a significant positive bivariate correlation (r= .40) between transformational leadership and job autonomy (latter being an aspect of job resources). Piccolo and Colquitt (2006, p. 334) also found a significant positive bivariate correlations (r= .32) and significant path coefficient (ß= .43) between transformational leadership and core job characteristics (of which autonomy is an element). In both these studies it is clear the obtained values are smaller than that obtained in the current study, however these results still provide support for the latter.

In trying to explain the proposed relationship between transformational leadership and job resources, emphasis will be placed on the impact of leadership on (a) task support, (b) relations support, (c) autonomy of work practices, and (d) co-worker support.

Leader support seems to explain the tasks in which transformational leaders engage (Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, & Kramer, 2004). Leader support includes behaviours such as providing followers with assistance in the setting of goals, supporting the workgroup, recognising individual contributions, and providing feedback (Amabile et al., 2004). These authors are of the opinion that leader support behaviour includes task and relations support. It is likely that supervisor and leader support might be viewed as a kind of job resource (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In terms of the Job Demands-Resources Scale (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005) used to measure job resources in the current study, the organisational support dimension of this instrument has numerous items reflecting the role of the employees' immediate supervisor/manager providing various types of organisational and task support. In addition, the growth opportunities dimension of this instrument has several items reflecting autonomous

work practices. Moreover, the social support dimension of this instrument emphasises the importance of co-worker support.

The following section will elaborate on possible theoretical reasons for the relationship between transformational leadership and task support.

Transformational leaders seem to facilitate the allocation of resources to their subordinates to solve work problems and manage their work more efficiently – influencing task support (Cheung & Wong, 2011, p. 661). In trying to account for the relationship between transformational leadership and job resources, it is suggested that the intellectual stimulation dimension of transformational leadership may impact the leader's task support. Intellectual stimulation refers to the leader's ability to stimulate learning and challenge followers' intellectual capabilities by setting higher goals and targets (Selzer & Bass, 1990). It seems as if these authors are referring to activities related to the leader's task support. The latter concerns maintaining or improving processes that facilitate the accomplishment of tasks, more specifically the clarification of role expectations and standards for task performance (Amabile et al., 2004).

The following section will elaborate on possible theoretical reasons for the relationship between transformational leadership and relational support activities.

Transformational leaders seem to maintain and improve cooperative interpersonal relationships – influencing relations support (Cheung & Wong, 2011, p. 661). A further possible explanation for the relationship between transformational leadership and job resources is that the individualised consideration dimension of transformational leadership may impact the leader's relational support activities (an aspect of job resources). Individualised consideration refers to the leader providing support, encouragement and coaching to followers, specifically related to growth and achievement (Yukl, 2006). Transformational leaders might actively provide the necessary coaching to help subordinates to better achieve their job responsibilities (i.e., individual consideration (Liaw et al., 2010). It seems as if these authors are referring to activities related to the leader's relations support. The latter refers to maintaining or improving cooperative interpersonal relationships that build trust and

loyalty. Leaders thus listen carefully to employees to better understand their concerns, provide support, and encourage, help, and recognise people as individuals (Amabile et al., 2004)

The following section will elaborate on possible theoretical reasons for the relationship between transformational leadership and autonomy of work practices.

In line with the explanations offered for the observed relationships between transformational leadership and job resources, leaders who utilise intellectual stimulation by seeking new perspectives and facilitating new ways to perform job tasks, may enhance follower perceptions of autonomy. According to Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics theory, autonomy (the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom), is one of the five core job characteristics used to explain conditions in which employees would be intrinsically motivated. Similarly, leaders who engage in individualised consideration by coaching and teaching should have followers who perceive more autonomy in their jobs (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) provide indirect support for these assertions, by suggesting that leaders who appeal to ideological values and engage in intellectual stimulation interject meaningfulness into their organisation and their followers' work. It may be possible that transformational leadership can directly stimulate autonomous behaviour by developing and empowering employees to choose alternative ways to approach tasks to experience more ownership, and have more direct impact on outcomes. Autonomy provides employees with room for self-determination and is likely to stimulate their willingness to persist, despite obstacles (den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Schaufeli et al., 2004).

The following section will elaborate on possible theoretical reasons for the relationship between transformational leadership and co-worker support.

Moreover a further possible explanation for the relationship between transformational leadership and job resources is that transformational leadership may impact co-worker support. The latter, being an aspect of job resources, can be defined as "the extent to which employees believe their co-workers are willing to provide them with

work-related assistance to aid the execution of their duties" (Susskind, Kakmar, & Borchgrevenk, 2003, p. 181). Transformational leaders are capable of communicating the organisational vision and inspiring followers to prioritise collective goals over their personal interests (Bass, 1985). The vision and these goals can motivate followers to take on extra responsibilities and to engage in more pro-social behaviours that are beneficial to achieving collective goals, including helping co-workers with heavy workloads, sharing resources, and providing advice to co-workers who encounter work problems - all being possible examples of co-worker support (Bono & Judge, 2003; Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009; Podsakoff et al. 1990; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Similarly, existing empirical studies (Tsai, Chen, & Liu, 2007; MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001) also demonstrate that transformational leaders strengthen the supportive and helping behaviours among employees. For example, Tsai, Chen and Cheng (2009) showed that transformational leadership increases insurance agents' helping co-worker behaviours. For this reason, one could expect that transformational leaders can enhance employees' perceptions of co-worker support, as employees may receive helping behaviours from co-workers and the supervisor.

5.4.2 The dynamics of the relationship between transformational leadership and supportive organisational climate.

The supportive organisational climate instrument used in the current study consisted of three dimensions (i.e. employee commitment, cooperation/coordination, and managerial competence and consistency). Employee commitment referred to the degree to which employees would support organisational goals and welfare. Cooperation and coordination items dealt with the degree to which various units within the organisation cooperated and trusted each other, and the managerial competence and consistency dimension referred to the degree to which managers were consistent in their treatment of employees and the articulation of organisational goals and policies (Rogg et al., 2001).

It was proposed that transformational leadership is positively related to supportive organisational climate (Proposition 2). Supporting this proposition, the current study (Phase 3) found that both the bivariate correlation (r= .52), as well as the path

coefficient (.19) between these two variables, as observed in Model 3, were statistically significant. It is clear that both these values indicate a positive relationship.

A study by McMurray et al. (2010) found significant positive bivariate correlations between organisational climate (consisting of autonomy, trust, support, recognition, fairness, and supervisory encouragement of innovation) and the following dimensions of transformational leadership: articulates vision (a behaviour of inspirational motivation) (r= .76), intellectual stimulation (r= .53), and provides individual support (i.e. individualised consideration) (r= .72). In addition, these authors also found a significant regression coefficient (ß= .47) between transformational leadership and organisational climate. Although these results support the findings of the current study, the values obtained seem to be larger than those obtained by the current study.

Leadership and climate are two variables that are implicitly linked (Denison, 1990; Gil, Rico, Alover, & Barrasa, 2005; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Schein, 1985). Organisational climate refers to "organisational members' collective norms, shared values, and beliefs" (Smith, Collins, & Clark, 2005, p. 1059). Organisational climate may be influenced by the perceptions individuals have of their workplace, as reflected by personal values and psychological desires (James, Choi, Ko, McNeil, Minton, Wright, & Kim, 2007). Empirical evidence supports such arguments by finding that leader behaviours impact work group climate, which prompts climate scholars to dub leaders as "climate engineers" (Naumann & Bennett, 2000; Scott & Bruce, 1994). Organisational behaviour literature further indicates that organisational climate can significantly influence members' behaviours and performance (Lindell & Brandt, 2000). Organisational climate and culture represent social constructions over which leaders have substantial control and influence (Mumford, Scott, Gaddis, & Strange, 2002). Parry (2002) concluded that leaders who created adaptive climates and cultures possessed the qualities of transformational leaders.

The relationship between transformational leadership and a supportive organisational climate may also be explained using the dimension of transformational leadership

which concerns idealised influence, which refers to leaders behaving in a way that causes followers to identify with the leader and the organisation (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985). The idealised influence dimension of transformational leadership may impact the co-operation/coordination dimension of a supportive organisational climate (i.e. the degree to which various units within the organisation cooperate and trust each other). When members identify with the intentions of their leaders, colleagues and their organisation, they tend to work together toward the attainment of their common goals (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Mutual interactions in working towards a common goal promote cooperation and feelings of trust among organisational members (Podsakoff et al. 1990).

The individualised consideration dimension of transformational leadership includes providing support, encouragement and coaching to followers. Attention is paid by leaders to each individual's need for growth and achievement (Yukl, 2006). Luthans et al. (2008) define a supportive organisational climate as the overall amount of perceived support employees receive from their immediate supervisor, their peers and other departments. Employees view the preceding as important in helping them to successfully perform their work duties. Supportive leadership is associated with a concern about the well-being of followers, and the facilitation of a desirable climate for interaction between leaders and followers (James & James, 1989). It may be argued that, if followers perceive encouragement and support from their leaders (i.e. elements of individualised consideration), this would contribute towards them experiencing a supportive organisational climate, ultimately helping them to successfully perform their work duties.

The intellectual stimulation dimension allows leaders to assist followers to look at problems from many different angles (Bass & Avolio, 1994). It is highly likely that when looking at problems from many different angles, frequent interaction and cooperation with co-workers may be necessary. The cooperation/coordination dimension of a supportive organisational climate refers to the degree to which units and employees within the organisation cooperate and trust each other (Rogg et al., 2001). When workers view things from different perspectives, they tend to value the opinions of their colleagues, regard their colleagues as capable, and interact more

frequently with their co-workers (Amabile et al., 1996; Madjar, Oldham & Pratt, 2002; Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993). It is therefore likely that, if leaders stimulate followers to see things from different perspectives, which require cooperation and coordination between co-workers, this may lead to them perceiving higher levels of supportive organisational climate.

Moreover, previous studies have found that individuals tend to trust each other if they share common values or beliefs (Settoon, Bennett & Liden, 1996; Whitener et al., 1998). One of the behaviours associated with idealised influence (a sub-dimension of transformational leadership) is that the transformational leader often shares his/her most important values and beliefs (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Hence, it is likely that if the leader shares these values and beliefs with his/her followers, that they are more likely to trust the leader. The extent to which various units in the organisation share important values and beliefs (such as trust and cooperation) will increase the likelihood that they will cooperate/coordinate with each other (a dimension of a supportive organisational climate). Thus, the idealised influence dimension of transformational leadership (e.g. sharing of values and beliefs) may impact the degree of co-operation/coordination (supportive organisational climate) by making workers willing to trust and support (both dimensions of organisational climate) their colleagues and specifically leaders without fearing that their own interests will be harmed.

5.4.3 The dynamics of the relationship between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment.

Psychological empowerment comprises four dimensions (i.e. meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact) (Spreitzer, 1995).

It was proposed that transformational leadership is positively related to psychological empowerment (Proposition 3). A significant bivariate correlation (r= .28) was obtained. The appropriate path coefficient (-.08) was however non-significant (Model 2). On the basis of the above, it seems as if the results provide only partial support for this proposition.

A study by Al-Swidi et al. (2012) reported a significant relationship (r= .42) between transformational leadership and empowerment. Ismail et al. (2011) also found a significant positive correlation (r= .39) between transformational leadership and empowerment, while Pieterse et al. (2010) reported a significant positive correlation of r= .33 between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment. Another study by Laschinger et al. (2009, p. 232) reported a significant positive bivariate correlation (r= .36) and significant path coefficient (ß= .41) between leadership and psychological empowerment**.** It is however noteworthy that a non-significant path coefficient was obtained in the current study.

It is clear that the values obtained in the above-mentioned studies are in line with the current result, although they are slightly higher than the values obtained in the current study.

A study by Krishnan (2012) reported significant positive bivariate correlations between empowerment and the following dimensions of transformational leadership: idealised influence (r= .26); inspirational motivation (r= .24), intellectual stimulation (r= .18), individualised consideration (r= .23). Krishnan (2012, p. 557) also reported a significant path coefficient (ß= .15) between empowerment and the idealised influence dimension of transformational leadership.

Although the current study did not investigate the statistical relationships between the sub-dimensions of transformational leadership and empowerment, the above results are still relevant. It is apparent that the correlation coefficients in the above study are fairly similar to those obtained in the current study. Noteworthy is the non-significant path coefficient obtained in the current study in contrast to the significant result in the above study.

Meyerson and Kline (2008) reported non-significant correlations between psychological empowerment and the following dimensions of transformational leadership: idealised influence (r= .07); inspirational motivation (r= .03), intellectual stimulation (r= -.02), individualised consideration (r= -.02). In contrast, the current study found a significant bivariate correlation between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment. The link between transformational leadership and empowerment was one of the basic premises of Bass's (1985) transformational

leadership theory. He elaborated on the role of the Pygmalion effect or self-fulfilling prophecy in transformational leadership. Avolio et al. (2004) stated that empowering employees is the essence of transformational leadership in order to achieve the overall organisational goals. Laschinger, Finegan and Shamian (2001) maintain that transformational leaders effectively encourage their followers to impact their organisations through enhancing their psychological empowerment. Hence, employees need to be empowered by their leaders and, moreover, encouraged to take brave initiatives, stimulate innovation, and cope with uncertainties.

One possible explanation of the relationship between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment is that the idealised influence dimension of transformational leadership may impact the meaning dimension of psychological empowerment. Bass (1999) suggests the transformational leader may, by way of idealised influence, develop followers' perceptions of having meaningful work. The transformational leader does this by realigning followers' personal values. This realignment of values (in relation to organisational values) seems to enable followers to pursue shared work goals that are meaningful (Jung, Yammarino, & Lee, 2009). Previous research has established how transformational leaders, by setting inspirational goals and emphasising higher purpose, provide meaning to followers' work (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992) and favour goal internalisation (Conger et al., 2000; Menon, 2001).

Another possible explanation of the relationship between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment is that the inspirational motivation dimension of transformational leadership may impact the meaning dimension of psychological empowerment. According to Bass and Avolio (1997), inspirational motivation involves communicating an exciting and appealing vision. Creating a clear vision may enable followers to see how their work fits into the overall goals of the organisation. It is therefore likely that, if employees are aware of how they contribute to the overall achievement of organisational goals (as well as individual goals), this may then facilitate a shared sense of meaningful work (Jung & Sosik, 2002) and cognitions of empowerment.

There also seems to be a relationship between the individualised consideration dimension of transformational leadership and psychological empowerment (more specifically, the competence dimension). This latter dimension relates to an individual's belief in his or her capabilities to perform activities with skill (Gist, 1987). According to Yukl (2006), individualised consideration includes providing support, encouragement and coaching to followers. Avolio and Bass (1995) maintain that transformational leaders tend to provide mentoring and coaching to their followers in order for them to develop a sense of self-confidence. In addition, Bass (1998) argued that transformational leaders try to develop followers' potential so as to help her/his followers become independent, which is associated with the self-determination dimension of psychological empowerment.

A further possible explanation of the relationship between transformational leadership and psychological empowerment may be possible through the intellectual stimulation dimension of transformational leadership. The latter refers to the ability of transformational leaders to stimulate learning and challenge followers' intellectual capabilities by setting higher goals and targets (Seltzer & Bass, 1990). It seems plausible that if employees are able to achieve the higher goals and targets set by their managers, this may contribute to increasing their levels of self-confidence and competence. It is therefore likely that if managers are able to stimulate learning amongst followers to achieve higher goals and targets, that the achievement of this may contribute to increasing their level of psychological empowerment and competence. Hence through intellectual stimulation, leaders seem to influence followers' perceptions of impact, choice and competence (Bass, 1999; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004) - the latter being a dimension of psychological empowerment.

5.4.4 The dynamics of the relationship between past leadership and psychological empowerment.

Past leadership consists of five self-developed items relating to perceptions of past leadership. It was proposed that past leadership is positively related to psychological empowerment (Proposition 4). Partial support for this proposition was found in the current study (Phase 3). A significant bivariate correlation (r= .15) versus a non-

significant path coefficient (.01) was found (Model 1). It is clear that both these values are small.

Careers are viewed as a journey of transitions over one's working life, (Hall, 1976, 1996; Sullivan, 1999; Super 1980), in which there is an implicit understanding that what has already occurred, will affect current and future career success (Feldman et al., 2007; Super, 1980). With some modification, this reasoning may be useful in explaining the relationship between past leadership and psychological empowerment.

Research has shown that positive manager-employee relationships result in employee empowerment. For example, Liden et al. (2000) demonstrated that high leader-member exchange (LMX) quality is predictive of the competence and meaningfulness aspects of psychological empowerment. These authors suggest that follower's perceptions of empowerment is likely to be enhanced by a supervisor who provides technical and emotional support, delegates decision-making, and nurtures self-efficacy (Liden et al., 2000). Burpitt and Bigoness (1997) identify two methods by which leaders may empower organisational members. Relationally, leaders may delegate authority to encourage initiative and responsibility among members. Motivationally, leaders may enhance members' beliefs in their own self-efficacy. It is therefore likely that if past leadership behaviours did not include both relational (e.g. delegating decision-making) and motivational (e.g. enhance self-efficacy) empowerment, this may impact the follower's current and future experience and perceptions of empowerment.

5.4.5 The dynamics of the relationship between job resources and supportive organisational climate.

A supportive organisational climate includes the dimensions of managerial competence and consistency, cooperation and coordination, and employee commitment (Rogg et al., 2001).

It was proposed that job resources are positively related to supportive organisational climate (Proposition 5). Supporting this proposition, the current study (Phase 3) found that both the bivariate correlation (r= .69), as well as the path coefficient (.68) (Model 6), were statistically significant. It is clear that both these values are similar in

size. According to Guilford's informal interpretation of *r* (as cited in Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002), the results suggest a strong relationship.

A study by Hakanen and Lindbohm (2008) reported a significant positive bivariate correlation (r= .59) between social support at work (an element of job resources) and organisational climate. Social support at work (Elo, Dallner, Gamberale, Hottinen, Knardahl, & Lindström, 2001), is another concept related to job resources. Social support at work relates to support received from one's immediate supervisor and co-workers. The organisational support dimension of the job resources scale used in the current study refers to support received from one's immediate supervisor. Whereas, the social support dimension refers to support from colleagues. These two dimensions seem to reflect the construct of social support at work (Elo et al., 2001).

The results obtained in the current study are slightly larger than that obtained by Hakanen and Lindbohm (2008).

Research suggests that when employees perceive the availability of organisational resources (i.e., training, autonomy and technology) which assist in the removal of obstacles at work, they feel more engaged in work. This in turn has a very positive impact on climate perceptions (Salanova et al., 2005).

Informational support (e.g. feedback regarding performance) is evident from the support provided by supervisors to their employees. In addition, instrumental support is illustrative of the social support received by employees from their co-workers (House, 1981). To follow, the relationship between job resources and supportive organisational climate will be explained firstly by way of informational support and secondly by instrumental support.

One possible explanation of the relationship between job resources and a supportive organisational climate is that organisational support (a job resource) is related to managerial competence and consistency (a dimension of a supportive organisational climate). One of the resources at the disposal of a supervisor is information. Informational support involves "providing a person with information that the person

can use in coping with personal and environmental problems" (House, 1981, p. 25). More specifically, the supervisor should provide sufficient information on the results of their employees' work (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005). It is likely that if a supervisor provides such information to employees, it would support them in the execution of their duties. This seems plausible, due the fact that employees view their managers or supervisors as competent (part of a supportive organisational climate) when they clearly communicate work objectives and responsibilities (i.e. information about their work) (Rogg et al., 2001).

A further explanation of the relationship between job resources and a supportive organisational climate is that social support (a job resource) is related to cooperation/coordination (a dimension of a supportive organisational climate). Instrumental support by co-workers is a type of resource which employees may need access to in completing their tasks (House, 1981). Instrumental support is defined as "behaviours that directly help the person in need" (House, 1981, pp. 24-25). Employees can count on their co-workers when they are in need of assistance (i.e. a job resource) (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005). Co-workers are likely to provide such assistance and support in the form of sharing information and effectively working together (both examples of the cooperation/coordination dimension of a supportive organisational climate) (Rogg et al., 2001). It is therefore likely that effectively working together can be viewed as instrumental behaviour.

5.4.6 The dynamics of the relationship between job resources and psychological empowerment.

It was proposed that job resources are positively related to psychological empowerment (Proposition 6). Supporting this proposition, the current study (Phase 3) found that both the bivariate correlation (r= .52) as well as the path coefficient (.39) (Model 6), were statistically significant. It is clear that these values differ somewhat in size.

Liden et al. (2000) reported significant positive bivariate correlations between job characteristics (as measured by the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) and the four dimensions of psychological empowerment, namely meaning, (r= .57) impact, (r= .51)

competence, (r= .16) and self-determination (r= .47). Although the current study did not report correlation coefficients associated with each of the sub-dimensions associated with both job resources and psychological empowerment, the obtained results seem to be fairly similar to those reported in the above mentioned study.

A study by Siegall and Gardner (2000, p. 710) reported significant positive bivariate correlations between communication with supervisor (which is an element of job resources), and three of the dimensions of psychological empowerment, namely meaning, (r= .29) self-determination, (r= .21) and impact (r= .29). In contrast, the relationship with competence was not significant (r= .13). In addition, Siegall and Gardner (2000, p. 710) reported significant positive bivariate correlations between teamwork (which is an element of job resources) and two of the dimensions of psychological empowerment, namely meaning (r= .39) and impact (r= .24). In contrast, the relationship with both competence (r= .07) and self-determination (r= .13) were not significant. The results obtained in the studies by Siegall (2000) are lower than those obtained in the current study (r= .52).

Bordin et al. (2007, p. 41) reported significant positive bivariate correlations between empowerment and the following elements of job resources: access to information about the organisation's mission (r= .37), access to information about performance (r= .46), supervisory social support (r= .38), and participation (r= .43). It is clear that the current study obtained slightly better results that those reported by Bordin et al. (2007).

It could therefore be concluded that the results of the current study are supported by those of the previously mentioned studies.

In the job characteristics model, the core job characteristics lead to intrinsic motivation through the mediation of three critical psychological states: experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, and knowledge of results (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). In describing each of the collective task assessments that comprise empowerment, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) drew parallels with the critical psychological states in the job characteristics model: meaning was linked with experienced meaningfulness, impact with knowledge of results, and self-

determination with experienced responsibility. This conceptualisation of three of the four empowerment dimensions in relation to the critical psychological states suggests that the nature of tasks, as defined by the job characteristics approach, contributes directly to perceptions of empowerment (Liden & Arad, 1996).

The relationship between job resources and psychological empowerment may be explained as follows: It is evident that behaviours associated with organisational support (a dimension of job resources) reflect the degree to which the supervisor/manager provides sufficient feedback related to performance of followers. In addition there is also frequent communication between the supervisor/manager and followers (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005). It is likely that the support provided by the supervisor/manager in terms of communication and feedback may impact the cognitions of competence (a dimension of psychological empowerment). For an individual to have a sense of competence and personal mastery (Bandura, 1989), work related feedback and communication about performance is required. Using the framework provided by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) that drew parallels between the critical psychological states in the job characteristics model, as well as the task assessments that compose empowerment, the following can also be suggested: Knowledge of actual results (critical psychological state) is parallel to impact (dimension of empowerment). If feedback provided by the manager (a job resource) seems to influence an employee's perception of competence by providing information of actual performance results, then this feedback seems to be related to the degree of impact perceived by the employee.

The relationship between social support (a dimension of job resources) and psychological empowerment may be explained as follows: It is evident that behaviours associated with social support, reflect the degree to which an individual can count on his/her colleagues. In addition, it also reflects the degree to which an individual gets along with his/her colleagues (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005). According to Peterson and Speer (2000), social support refers to the degree to which organisational members provide and receive emotional and other types of support leading to the experience of a psychological sense of community. Randolph (1995) stated that the three keys to empowerment include teamwork, sharing information and communicating a vision. Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) also addressed the issue of what makes empowerment

work. Among the organisational characteristics they identified as important were that employees understood the vision and goals of top management, and that the organisation emphasised openness and teamwork. Employees had to believe that they can work together to solve problems, in order for them to be willing to take empowered actions.

Using the framework provided by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) that drew parallels between the critical psychological states in the job characteristics model, and the task assessments in relation to empowerment, the following can also be suggested: Meaning (a dimension of empowerment) is parallel to the experience of meaningfulness (a critical psychological state). According to the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), task identity, task significance and skill variety lead to the experience of meaningfulness in a job. Of importance, is the task significance component (i.e. the level in which a job has a significant effect on the lives or work of others, be it in the immediate organisation or in the external environment). An example of such behaviour includes "The job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done" (Johari, Mit, & Yahya, 2009, p. 64). Within a team environment, where a group of people can potentially be affected by the quality of work completed by other members of the team, it is likely that task significance may play an important role in teamwork. If the latter is true, then teamwork may influence the experience of meaningfulness. It is evident that behaviours associated with social support reflect the degree to which an individual can count on his/her colleagues. In addition it also reflects the degree to which an individual gets along with his/her colleagues (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005). Hence, it may therefore be possible that teamwork (i.e. social support) may impact the experience of meaningfulness (a dimension of psychological empowerment) to the extent that tasks are completed with a high level of quality that will impact other team members.

The relationship between growth opportunities (a dimension of job resources) and psychological empowerment may be explained as follows: It is evident that behaviours associated with growth opportunities reflect the degree to which an individual has freedom in carrying out her/his work activities, can influence the planning of his/her work activities, and offers independent thought and action (Jackson & Rothmann,

2005). Using the framework provided by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) that drew parallels between the critical psychological states in the job characteristics model, as well as the task assessments that compose empowerment, the following can also be suggested: Self-determination (a dimension of empowerment) is parallel to responsibility (a critical psychological state).

According to the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), autonomy leads to the experience of responsibility. Self-determination refers to an individual's sense of having choice in initiating actions (Deci et al., 1989). Self-determination reflects autonomy in the initiation and continuation of work behaviours and processes; examples include making decisions about work methods, pace and effort (Bell & Staw, 1989; Spector, 1986). If this is true, then growth opportunities (reflecting autonomy), may impact self-determination (which is related to experienced responsibility). An autonomy-supportive supervisor/manager can cultivate a sense of self-determination amongst followers by acknowledging their perspectives, offering opportunities for choice, and encouraging self-initiation (Gagné, 2003). In support of these arguments, research has shown a positive relationship between managerial autonomy support and employee responses such as higher involvement, greater persistence, and better psychological adjustment, all of which indicate an enhanced sense of empowerment (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004).

5.4.7 The dynamics of the relationship between past job resources and psychological empowerment.

Past job resources consists of five self-developed items relating to perceptions of past job resources.

It was proposed that past job resources is positively related to psychological empowerment (Proposition 7). Supporting this proposition, the current study (Phase 3) found that both the bivariate correlation (r= .24), as well as the path coefficient (.15) (Model 3), were statistically significant. It is clear that both these values are fairly similar in size.

The cumulative advantage/disadvantage theory of DiPrete and Eirich (2006) may provide a possible conceptual basis for explaining the relationship between past job resources and psychological empowerment. According to the cumulative advantage/disadvantage theory, the cumulative disadvantage process is capable of amplifying small differences over the course of time and subsequently makes it difficult for an individual who is behind in resource development at a point in time to catch up (DiPrete & Eirich, 2006). Individuals who have had access to more resources in the past, are likely to be at an advantage in their current and future positions, because they had more opportunities to access and develop these resources. A lack of access to critical organisational resources is contributory to powerlessness and dependency (as cited in Bowen & Lawler, 1992) which is indicative of a lack of psychological empowerment. Access to resources enhances an individual's sense of self-efficacy and control over environmental contingencies (Bowen & Lawler, 1992; Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

5.4.8 The dynamics of the relationship between supportive organisational climate and psychological empowerment.

It was proposed that supportive organisational climate is positively related to psychological empowerment (Proposition 8). Supporting this proposition, the current study (Phase 3) found that both the bivariate correlation (r= .48), as well as the path coefficient (.22) (Model 6), were statistically significant. It is clear that these values differ in size.

A study by Mok and Au-Yeung (2002, p. 134) reported significant positive bivariate correlations ranging from (r= .51) to (r= .34) between derived climate factors and psychological empowerment. All the factors in the organisational climate scale were moderately to highly related to empowerment. It is apparent that the above values are slightly higher than the values obtained in the current study.

Hassanein et al. (2008, p. 1173) reported significant positive bivariate correlations between organisational climate and the following dimensions of empowerment: meaning (r= .19), competence (r= .33), self-determination (r= .73). The results obtained in the study by Hassanein et al. (2008) are fairly similar to the results

obtained in the current study (Phase 3), with the exception of a higher correlation coefficient between organisational climate and self-determination.

The relationship between managerial competence and consistency (a dimension of supportive organisational climate) and psychological empowerment may be explained as follows: Managerial competence refers to the degree to which managers are consistent in their treatment of employees and the articulation of organisational goals and policies (Rogg et al., 2001). These behaviours seem to be similar to those alluded to by Whitener et al. (1998). These authors argue that trustworthy behaviour on the part of management is core to the development of perceptions of empowerment. Thus, displaying behavioural consistency, behavioural integrity and concern for followers are imperative to the development of perceptions of psychological empowerment.

The relationship between cooperation and coordination (a dimension of supportive organisational climate) and psychological empowerment may be explained as follows: Cooperation and coordination refer to the degree to which various units within the organisation cooperate and trust each other (Rogg et al., 2001). Taborda (2000) found that teamwork placed emphasis on sharing of responsibilities and trust-building in the group, which enhances members' feelings of empowerment. Corsun and Enz (1999) also found that there was a notable association between peer-supportive relationships and employees' perceptions of meaningfulness, personal influence and self-efficacy.

It is therefore likely that individuals' who feel confident (i.e. self-efficacious) about their abilities to complete certain tasks within a team will be proactive (i.e. initiating action/self-determination) in taking responsibility for that. In addition, team members are less likely to allocate responsibility to the completion of tasks, to those members who are incapable. Hence the opportunity to experience self-efficacy and self-determination within a group may lead to feelings of empowerment.

The relationship between employee commitment *(*a dimension of a supportive organisational climate) and the meaning dimension of psychological empowerment may be explained as follows: Employee commitment refers to the degree to which

employees would support organisational goals and welfare (Rogg et al., 2001). The psychological empowerment dimension of meaning emphasises the value of a work goal or purpose judged in relation to an individual's own ideals and standards (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). This refers to the overlap between the goals and values of the organisation and the individual. If an individual experiences meaning, she/he is more likely to experience cognitions of psychological empowerment. Hence, it is likely that an employee who is more committed to those goals and welfare which are shared by the organisation, will experience higher levels of meaningfulness and feel more psychologically empowered.

5.4.9 The dynamics of the relationship between psychological empowerment and psychological capital.

Psychological capital consists of the dimensions of optimism, hope, resilience, and self-efficacy. Psychological capital, the higher order construct, represents one's "positive appraisal of circumstances and probability for success based on motivated effort and perseverance" (Luthans et al., 2005).

It was proposed that psychological empowerment is positively related to psychological capital (Proposition 9). Supporting this proposition, the current study (Phase 3) found that both the bivariate correlation (r= .50), as well as the path coefficient (.57) (Model 6), were statistically significant. It is clear that both these values are similar in size.

A study by Mathe and Scott-Halsell (2012) reported a significant positive bivariate correlation (r= .76) between psychological empowerment and psychological capital. The results obtained by Mathe and Scott-Halsell (2012) are higher than the values obtained in the current study.

If an employee receives positive feedback for the work he or she does within the organisation from others (such as a supervisor), this would likely result in greater feelings of psychological capital (Mathe & Scott-Halsell, 2012). It is therefore likely that employees will perceive themselves as competent as a result of receiving confirmation for the work that they do. Employees who receive positive feedback

about their performance on the job are likely to express higher self-efficacy beliefs (a dimension of psychological capital) (Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002).

Theorists have argued that psychologically empowered employees anticipate problems and act independently in the face of risk or uncertainty, exert influence over goals and operational procedures so that they can produce high quality work outcomes, and demonstrate resourcefulness in the face of obstacles to work goal accomplishment (Spreitzer, 1995, 2008). Empirical research also indicates that competency (i.e. self-efficacy) and impact beliefs increase performance by increasing task effort and persistence (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998a). One of the behavioural consequences of psychological empowerment is an increase in task effort by employees. Hence it is plausible that when employees experience competence in performing tasks (a dimension of psychological empowerment) this leads to an increase in their motivation to exert effort in completing the task (a consequence of psychological empowerment) (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998a). It is likely that the experience of competence will lead to higher levels of psychological capital.

A second behavioural consequence of psychological empowerment is an increase in persistence by employees. This seems similar to perseverance which is associated with the higher order construct of psychological capital. Hence it is plausible that when employees demonstrate competence (a dimension of psychological empowerment), they will approach challenging tasks with greater confidence and motivation, and persist through to completion, even though the tasks are difficult and require continued effort to master. Persistence is a consequence of psychological empowerment (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998a). The latter is directly related to psychological capital.

5.4.10 The dynamics of the relationship between psychological capital and subjective career success.

Subjective career success consists of three dimensions, namely perceived career success (career satisfaction) (Greenhaus et al. (1990), perceived internal marketability (Johnson, 2001), and perceived external marketability (Johnson, 2001).
It was proposed that psychological capital is positively related to subjective career success (Proposition 10). Supporting this proposition, the current study (Phase 3) found that both the bivariate correlation (r= .42), as well as the path coefficient (.25) (Model 6), were statistically significant. It is clear that both these values are similar in size. In support of the above, stepwise multiple regression also revealed that psychological capital (β= .26) was a significant predictor of subjective career success.

A study by Abele and Spurk (2009) found a significant positive bivariate correlation (r= .19) and significant path coefficient (β= .26) between occupational self-efficacy (self-efficacy being a dimension of psychological capital) and career satisfaction (a dimension of subjective career success). A study by Valcour and Ladge (2008) reported a significant bivariate correlation (r= .19) and a significant regression coefficient (β= .17) between self-efficacy (a dimension of psychological capital) and subjective career success.

From the above it is clear that the regression coefficient obtained in the current study is similar to that reported by the above studies. In contrast the correlation coefficients from these studies are smaller than the values obtained in the current study.

The relationship between psychological capital and subjective career success may possibly be explained by way of occupational self-efficacy:

Occupational self-efficacy may impact career satisfaction (a dimension of subjective career success). Although occupational self-efficacy is neither a broad measure of generalised self-efficacy nor a very specific measure of self-efficacy associated with particular career interests, its basis is still self-efficacy. The latter is a sub-dimension of psychological capital. Occupational self-efficacy is the belief in one's capacity and

motivation to perform occupational tasks and challenges and to pursue one's occupational career, irrespective of the particular field of occupation (Higgins et al. 2008). The afore-mentioned authors found that occupational self-efficacy had a positive effect on career satisfaction (a dimension of subjective career success).
It is likely that individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs, set higher goals for themselves, put in more effort, and persist longer on a difficult task (Bandura, 1986; 1997). According to socio-cognitive theorising (Brown, Jones, & Leigh, 2005), both self-efficacy beliefs and goals are determinants of successful outcomes. Hence, employees who display self-confidence and are successful in the completion of those occupational tasks, may ultimately exhibit positive perceptions of career success.

5.4.11 The dynamics of the relationship between objective career success (current) and subjective career success.

Objective career success consists of both current and past objective success. However, in this particular proposition, the focus is exclusively on objective career success (current). The latter was measured in terms of the criteria of salary (Thorndike, 1934) and promotion (Thorndike, 1963).

It was proposed that objective career success (current) is positively related to subjective career success (Proposition 11). Partial support for this proposition was found in the current study (Phase 3): A significant bivariate correlation (*r*= .12) versus a non-significant path coefficient (.04) (Model 2). It is clear that both these values are small. In support of the above, a step-wise multiple regression analysis also revealed that objective career success (current) was not a significant predictor of subjective career success.

A study by Tharmaseelan et al. (2010. p. 228) found a significant positive bivariate correlation (r= .56) between objective career success and subjective career success. A further study by Valcour and Ladge (2008, p. 305) reported a significant bivariate correlation (r= .26) and significant regression coefficient (ß= .10) between income (indicator of objective career success) and subjective career success. Finally, a study by Seibert et al. (2001, p. 861) found significant positive bivariate correlations between career satisfaction (a dimension of subjective career success) and the

elements of objective career success, namely salary progression (r= .18) and promotions (r= .15).

It is clear that the majority of correlation and regression coefficients obtained in the above-mentioned studies are small, with the noted exception of the correlation between objective career success and subjective career success. The results obtained in the current study mirror the above findings. However, the current study reported non-significant path and regression coefficients.

The relationship between objective career success (current) and subjective career success may be explained using two theories, namely attribution theory (Johns, 1999), and social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954). According to attribution theory, people have the tendency to attribute successes to internal causes and failures to external factors. As such, one's objective career success is likely to engender positive self-perceptions, which in turn could lead to greater satisfaction with one's career (Johns, 1999).

In addition to attribution theory, social comparison theory leads to a similar prediction. According to this theory, people have the tendency to compare themselves with others. Salary level and number of promotions are important and convenient means of such comparisons. Obtaining a higher salary level and more promotions relative to others is likely to enhance one's perceptions of success. Because wealth and social standing are valued in society, tangible career achievements may lead to feelings of greater career satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005). Hence, objective career success could be the basis for the subjective evaluation of success (Abele & Spurk, 2009).

5.4.12 The dynamics of the relationship between objective career success (past) and subjective career success.

In this particular proposition, the focus is exclusively on objective career success (past). The latter was measured in terms of the criterion of salary (Thorndike, 1934) and promotion (Thorndike, 1963).

It was proposed that objective career success (past) is positively related to subjective career success (Proposition 12). The current study (Phase 3) found no support for this proposition - a non-significant bivariate correlation (r= .05) as well as a non-significant path coefficient (.02) (Model 2). It is clear that both these values are small. In support of the above the stepwise multiple regression also revealed that objective career success (past) was not a significant predictor of career success.
A study by Stumpf and Tymon (2012, p. 350) found significant positive bivariate correlations between satisfaction with career (a dimension of subjective career success) and the two elements of past objective career success, namely promotions (r= .30) and salary change (r= .17).

The results obtained in the current study are all much smaller (and non-significant) in comparison to those reported by Stumpf and Tymon (2012).

A possible explanation for the relationship between objective career success (past) and subjective career success may be that past organisational promotions and salary changes, increase subjective career success through its positive effects on intrinsic rewards (Stumpf & Tymon, 2012). It seems that what has already occurred in the past, will affect current and future career success (Feldman et al., 2007). Past promotions and salary changes set the stage for future opportunities and affect the way professionals perceive themselves and are perceived by others. These changes (i.e. promotions and salary increases) are often visible to others and appear to be objective indices of success (Stumpf & Tymon, 2012).

In addition, recent research demonstrates that once hygiene factors (such as salary) are satisfactory, the experience of intrinsic rewards has a strong effect on career satisfaction (Tymon, Stumpf, & Doh, 2010).

5.4.13 The dynamics of the relationship between transformational leadership and subjective career success.

To explore the possibility of improving model fit, modification indices were consulted. The modification indices suggested that a direct path between transformational leadership and subjective career success be included in the structural model. A study

by Vincent-Höper et al. (2012) reported a positive significant bivariate correlation (r= .47) and significant path coefficient (ß= .52) in a sample of women, and a positive significant bivariate correlation (r= .36) and significant path coefficient (ß= .43) in a sample of men, between transformational leadership and subjective occupational/career success. A study by Riaz and Haider (2010, p. 34) reported a positive significant bivariate correlation (r= .55) between transformational leadership and career satisfaction (a sub-dimension of subjective career success).

In the current study, however, only the bivariate correlation (r= .32) was statistically significant. In contrast, the observed path coefficient (.02) (Model 5), was not significant. It is clear that the values obtained in the current study are all lower than that obtained in the above-mentioned studies.

A possible explanation of the relationship between transformational leadership and subjective career success may be linked to the role transformational leaders' play in terms of challenging employees positively (Bass & Avolio, 1990). By challenging employees, they increase their willingness to exert effort in their job, leading to successful performance, which in turn results in more performance satisfaction and fulfilment (Xanthopoulou et al., 2008). According to Bass (1998), transformational leaders motivate their followers to perform beyond expectations by evoking followers' higher order needs such as achievement (Bass, 1998).

Although transformational leadership consists of four dimensions, theory seems to suggest that both idealised influence and intellectual stimulation may be at the core of explaining transformational leadership's impact on followers' subjective career success (Sosik et al., 2000).

This relationship may be attributable to the career-boosting characteristics of transformational leadership (i.e. trust in the leader and observational learning): "Perceived as trustworthy, respected and admirable role models, leaders who exhibit idealised influence may enhance their subordinates' ability to undertake calculated risks to advance their careers" (Sosik et al., 2000, p. 370). In this way, effective transformational leadership behaviour may contribute to enhancing the follower's

career development and feelings of satisfaction (i.e. career satisfaction) and accomplishment with one's career.

The impact of intellectual stimulation on subjective career success may be explained as follows: Intellectual stimulation refers to the ability of leaders to stimulate learning and challenge followers by setting higher goals and targets (Seltzer & Bass, 1990). Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) and Riaz and Haider (2010) found that when leaders communicate a vision of quality in addition to providing intellectual stimulation to followers, both these aspects had a significant (but small) effect on employees' performance quality and quantity. This may ultimately lead to increased perceptions of career success when employees perform their jobs adhering to high quality standards based on challenging goals.

It may be likely that transformational leadership does not predict subjective career success in isolation, but rather through a combination of other resources available to the transformational leader (e.g. job resources, supportive organisational climate, and PsyCap).

5.4.14 The dynamics of the relationship between job resources and subjective career success.

To explore the possibility of improving model fit, modification indices were consulted. The modification indices suggested a further path, between job resources and subjective career success, to be included in the structural model.

A study by Ng et al. (2005) found significant positive bivariate correlations between career satisfaction (a dimension of subjective career success) and the following elements of job resources: career sponsorship ($r = .44$), supervisor support ($r = .46$), training and skills development opportunities, ($r = .38$). In addition, a study by Supangco (2011) found a significant positive bivariate correlation ($r = .46$) and a significant regression coefficient ($\beta = .28$) between developmental experience (an element of job resources) and career satisfaction (a dimension of subjective career success).

In the current study, both the bivariate correlation (r= .51), as well as the path coefficient (.33) (Model 6), were statistically significant. In addition, job resources was also a significant predictor of subjective career success (ß= .27). With regard to both the correlation and path coefficients, it is clear that the results obtained in the current study, as well as in the above-mentioned studies, are fairly similar. In addition, the regression coefficient obtained in the study by Supangco (2011) is similar to that of the current study.

The relationship between job resources and subjective career success may be explained as follows:

Organisational sponsorship is another concept related to job resources. According to Dreher and Ash (1990), organisational sponsorship represents the extent to which organisations provide special assistance to employees to facilitate career success. These include career sponsorship (refers to the extent to which employees receive sponsorship from senior-level employees that helps enhance their career) (Kram, 1985), supervisor support (refers to the extent to which supervisors provide emotional and work-related social support) (Kirchmeyer, 1995), and training and skill development opportunities (refers to employees' self-reported perceptions of the extent to which their company provided opportunities for training and skill acquisition (Wayne et al., 1999).

It seems as if the behaviours associated with supervisor support mentioned above, are similar to the behaviours associated with organisational support (the latter was used to measure job resources in the current study). An example of organisational support includes the extent to which the employee receives sufficient information from her/his immediate supervisor on how well she/he is doing her/his work) (Rogg et al., 2001). In addition, it also seems that the behaviours associated with training and skills development, are similar to those behaviours associated with growth opportunities (e.g. the employee's job offers opportunities for growth and development) (Rogg et al., 2001).

A possible explanation of the relationship between job resources and subjective career success is that organisations may provide important resources such as supervisor support and training and skills development opportunities to employees

which may serve as cues to employees that they are valued and possess career potential. These cues are then likely to elicit favourable affective reactions including higher levels of career satisfaction and a stronger sense of career success (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). More specifically, it is likely that when employees experience early career successes, their supervisors will notice their potential. Supervisors may then provide these employees with more favourable treatment, such as providing them with formal and informal training and development opportunities, and this may contribute to their career satisfaction and perceptions of career success. This may contribute to the performance of such employees which distinguishes them from other employees and which may ultimately lead to their perceptions of career success (Ng et al., 2005).

When employees have access to job resources, such as supervisor support and training and skills development opportunities, they are likely to be more successful in their careers. It is plausible that as a consequence of career success, employees may be noticed by other senior managers in the organisation which may improve their internal marketability (Johnson, 2001). This success may also be noticed by managers from other organisations, which may influence their perceptions of external marketability (Johnson, 2001), which may ultimately lead to their perceptions of career success.

5.4.15 The dynamics of the relationship between supportive organisational climate and subjective career success.

To explore the possibility of improving model fit, modification indices were consulted. The modification indices suggested that an additional final path between supportive organisational climate and subjective career success be included in the structural model.

Although no previous studies could be found that reported on the empirical relationship between supportive organisational climate and subjective career success, there was a study that found a relationship between subjective career success and organisational learning climate. A study by Park (2010, p. 9) found a significant positive bivariate correlation between subjective career success and the following elements of an organisational learning climate, namely promoting dialogue and

enquiry (r = .30) and providing leadership (r = .21). It seems plausible that the managerial competence dimension of a supportive organisational climate alludes to a managers ability to promote dialogue and provide leadership. Organisational climate seems to enhance an individual's career success through the facilitation of learning new knowledge that is important to perform well in the workplace (Nabi, 2000, 2001). The facilitation of learning seems to be based on the notion of an organisational learning climate (Parker et al., 2004).

In the current study both the bivariate correlation (r= .47***)*** and the path coefficient (0.22) (Model 6), were statistically significant. In addition, supportive organisational climate was also a significant predictor of subjective career success (ß= .21). It is clear that the results obtained in the current study are in line with those obtained by Park (2010).

The above theory seems to provide theoretical support for the path suggested by the modification indices. Although Park (2010) provided empirical support for this additional path, other studies were consulted to provide theoretical and conceptual support for the proposed path.

Watkins and Marsick's model (1996) identify several dimensions associated with a learning organisation, the two dimensions of a learning organisation, namely promote enquiry and dialogue, and empower people towards a collective vision, seem to be related to the managerial competence and consistency dimension of a supportive organisational climate used in the current study.

The managerial competence and consistency dimension of a supportive organisational climate refers to, amongst other behaviours, managers who clearly communicate work objectives and responsibilities to their employees (Rogg et al., 2001). This behaviour seems similar to the dimension of promotion of enquiry and dialogue, related to the organisational learning climate. Another behaviour related to managerial competence and consistency is to be found in managers who inspire commitment to the organisational mission and goals (Rogg et al., 2001). This behaviour seems similar to

the learning climate dimension, which refers to managers who empower people to a collective vision.

It seems likely that managers can create a climate supportive of learning by (a) clearly communicating work objectives and responsibilities as well as (b) inspiring commitment to the organisation's mission and goals. It is therefore plausible that employees will perceive their managers as supportive when they create a climate supportive of learning. Employees may enhance their skills if they take advantage of the opportunities created by managers (i.e. providing support for learning). This may ultimately lead to improving their chances of experiencing career success (Parker et al., 2004).

The cooperation/coordination dimension of a supportive organisational climate refers to, amongst other behaviours, departments/work teams who cooperate to get the job done (Rogg et al., 2001). This behaviour seems similar to the encouragement of collaboration and team learning aspect of a learning climate, as suggested by Watkins et al.'s (1996) model.

In addition to the role played by managers, teams also facilitate a climate supportive of learning, by means of cooperation and collaboration. So when employees learn from fellow colleagues, they may enhance their skills that may ultimately lead to increased perceptions of career success (Parker et al., 2004).

5.5 Discussion and Conclusions about the Main Findings

Multiple regression, including all the independent variables in the conceptual model and subjective career success as the dependent variable, indicated that the strongest contributor to career success was job resources, followed by psychological capital and supportive organisational climate.

It seems apparent that the three best direct predictors of career success are:

- Job resources
- Supportive organisational climate
- Psychological capital

However, using the optimal model derived in the current study from the PLS results, the above multiple regression results cannot account for the more complex relationships in the optimal model. The optimal model (depicted in Figure 5.1 below) suggests alternative paths consisting of the following:

- Transformational leadership through job resources to impact subject career success.
- Transformational leadership through job resources; through supportive organisational climate to impact subjective career success.
- Transformational leadership through job resources; through psychological empowerment; through psychological capital to impact subjective career success.
- Transformational leadership through job resources; through supportive organisational climate; through psychological empowerment; through psychological capital to impact subjective career success.

The PLS Path Model (Final) is shown in Figure 5.1 below.

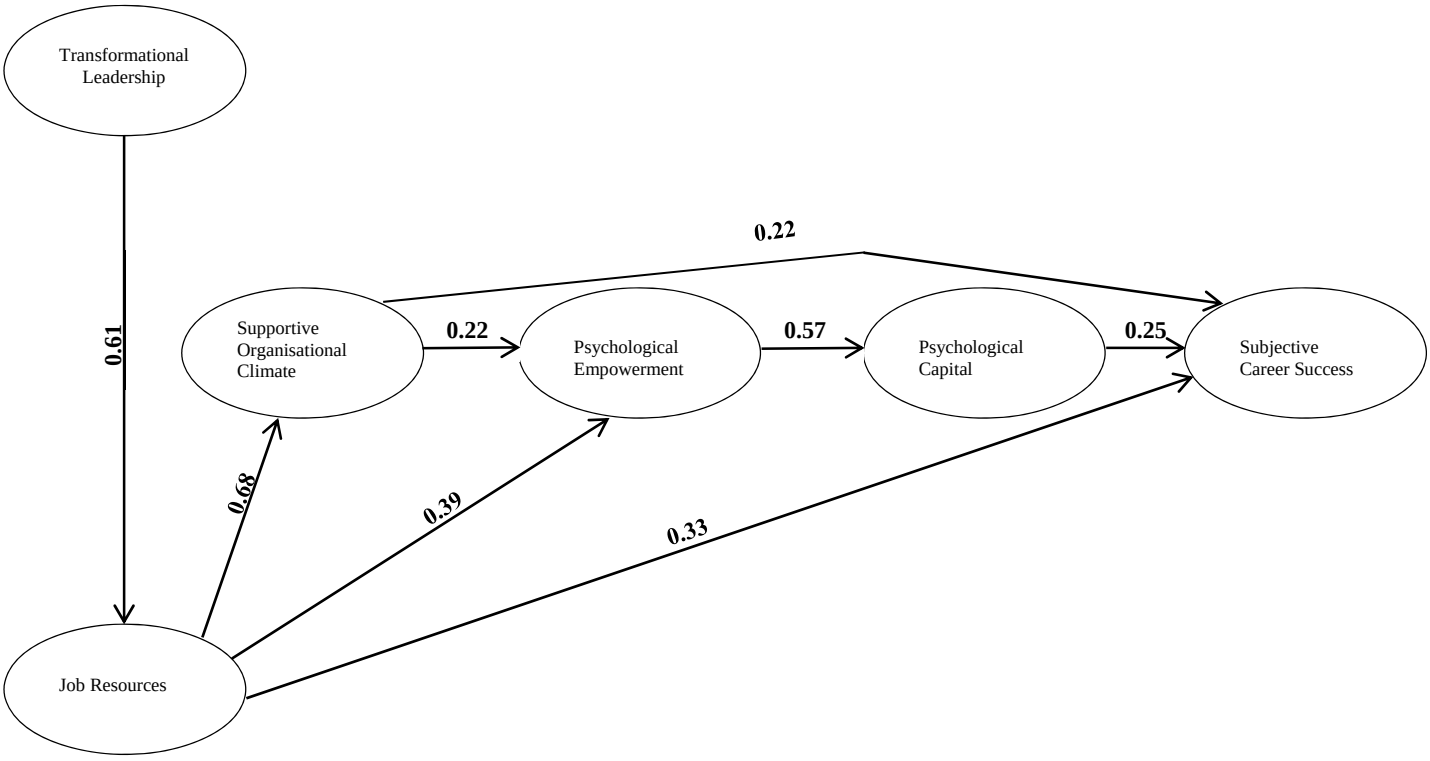

***Figure 5.1*. PLS path model (Final): Model 6**

The following section provides a holistic explanation of the sequential relationships as suggested in the optimal model.

5.6 Explaining the Relationships as suggested by the Optimal Model

Transformational leaders use intellectual stimulation by stimulating learning and challenging followers' intellectual capabilities by setting higher goals and targets (Selzer & Bass, 1990). By doing so followers have a clear expectation of what is expected of them in terms of the tasks to be performed. Hence, the transformational leader provides task support (a job resource) through intellectual stimulation (a dimension of transformational leadership). In addition, transformational leaders stimulate autonomous behaviour by developing and empowering employees to exercise choice in their strategy to complete tasks. Hence, transformational leaders provide opportunities for autonomous behaviour (i.e. autonomy being a job resource) through intellectual stimulation (a dimension of transformational leadership).

Transformational leaders provide coaching to help subordinates achieve their job responsibilities (individualised consideration) (Liaw et al., 2010). By doing so, the transformational leader provides relational support (a job resource) that encourages, helps and recognises followers as individuals (Amabile et al., 2004).

It is likely that job resources may influence a supportive organisational climate. More specifically organisational support (a job resource) (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005) may be related to managerial competence (a dimension of a supportive organisational climate) (Rogg et al., 2001). It seems likely that when supervisors clearly communicate work objectives and responsibilities (i.e. information about subordinates' work) (Jackson & Rothmann, 2005), employees will perceive their supervisors as competent (i.e. part of a supportive organisational climate) (Rogg et al., 2001). By having access to such information, employees may feel that they receive more support from the organisation.

The managerial competence dimension of a supportive organisational climate (which refers to the degree to which managers are consistent in their treatment of

employees, as well as the articulation of organisational goals) (Rogg et al., 2001) may be the key component that influences employees' perceptions of being psychologically empowered. Managers who share this information are viewed as trustworthy by employees. Trust is the core to the development of perceptions of psychological empowerment (Whitener et al., 2001). Thus, displaying behavioural consistency, behavioural integrity and concern for followers are imperative to the development of perceptions of psychological empowerment.

The sharing of information does not only influence trust, but also impacts the experience of meaning (a dimension of psychological empowerment). When managers share information about the organisation's goals and values, employees can then determine the degree of overlap with their own values and goals (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Hence, the greater the overlap, the more meaningfulness employees will experience, which is part of psychological empowerment.

Finally, managers also share work-related information that may impact perceptions of competence. It is likely that the support provided by managers in terms of work-related communication and feedback about performance, may impact cognitions of competence (a dimension of psychological empowerment) and personal mastery (Bandura, 1989).

One possible consequence of psychological empowerment is an increase in employees' self-efficacy beliefs. If an employee receives positive feedback from others (such as a supervisor) for the work he or she does within the organisation, it would most likely result in greater feelings of psychological capital (Mathe & Scott-Halsell, 2012, p. 357). It is therefore likely that employees will perceive themselves as competent as a result of receiving confirmation of the work that they do. Employees who receive positive feedback about their performance on the job are likely to express higher self-efficacy beliefs (a dimension of psychological capital) (Potosky & Ramakrishna, 2002, p. 281).

Another consequence of psychological empowerment is an increase in persistence by employees. Hence it is plausible that when employees demonstrate competence (a

dimension of psychological empowerment) it will lead to an increase in persistence (a consequence of psychological empowerment) (Bandura & Locke, 2003; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998a). Employees who believe in their abilities to perform a task will persevere until they have mastered the task. Perseverance is directly related to psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2005).

It is likely that employees' levels of psychological capital may influence their perceptions of subjective career success. Occupational self-efficacy may impact career satisfaction (a dimension of subjective career success). Occupational self-efficacy is the belief in one's capacity and motivation to perform occupational tasks and challenges and to pursue one's occupational career irrespective of the particular field of occupation (Higgins et al., 2008). These authors found that task-related self-efficacy had a positive effect on subjective career success. It is likely that individuals with high self-efficacy beliefs set higher goals for themselves, put in more effort, and persist longer on a difficult task (Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 1997). According to socio-cognitive theorising (Brown et al., 2005), both self-efficacy beliefs and goals are determinants of successful outcomes. It is therefore likely that occupational self-efficacy beliefs and the successful achievement of career goals may ultimately lead to positive perceptions of career success.

In the following section the contributions of the current study are outlined.

5.7 Contributions of the Study

- The current study has produced a conceptual model which offers a unique understanding of the complex way in which the selected variables are interrelated. This new understanding has led to the incorporation of both organisational and individual variables in a single model explaining subjective career success.
- No previous study has investigated the optimal combination of these variables in trying to predict career success of black employees in the South African work environment.

- No previous study, using the above-mentioned combination of variables, has employed a mixed-methods research design - more specifically an exploratory sequential design variant.
- The present study may serve as a baseline/first-level study that provides a foundation for future research on subjective career success and its relationship to other variables.
- The study is unique in that three different samples were used during each of the three phases of the study.
- The study is the first in South Africa to investigate the impact of organisational and individual factors related to subjective career success amongst black employees in white-collar jobs.
- Given the unique South African sample, the study could investigate the psychometric properties of the various constructs under investigation in the culturally diverse South African context.
- Finally practical interventions based on both the theoretical and empirical results will be offered to enhance employees' perceptions of subjective career success (See section 5.9).

In the following section the limitations of the current study and recommendations for future research are provided.

5.8 Limitations of the Current Study and Recommendations for Future Research

The following section firstly highlights some limitations of this research study and then offers recommendations for future research on the topic.

5.8.1 Mono-method bias.

Quantitative studies, using a survey research design, need to take cognisance of the possible impact of mono-method bias (Posdsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Inflation of the observed correlation due to common method variance is a potential problem associated with self-report data. However, Chan (as cited in Lance & Van den berg, 2009, p. 318) points out that "it is a myth to take as a fact that correlations among self-report measures are always inflated estimates of the true interconstruct relationships". Although this is a real concern, the values of the results

obtained in the current study were fairly comparable to the results reported by previous studies.

5.8.2 Gathering of data at a single moment in time.

As the current study is cross-sectional in nature, it may pose a challenge to infer the impact of changes in variables over time. Although longitudinal research designs may facilitate better understanding of causal relationships, it was not regarded as a practical approach for the current study. The inferences made in the current study need to be treated with caution as the findings could not be utilised as evidence of causal relationships amongst the variables depicted in the conceptual model. The proposed sequence of the variables in the conceptual model is, however, compatible with existing theory. It is therefore suggested that future research consider exploring a longitudinal research design that may shed light on how these variables influence each other and change over time (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994).

5.8.3 Exploratory design variant.

The exploratory sequential design followed in the current study suggests that the qualitative phase should precede the quantitative phase (Cresswell et al., 2011). In the current study, the purpose of the qualitative phase was two-fold: Firstly, to seek confirmation whether the instruments to be utilised (in the quantitative phase) covered relevant issues that were seen as important (from a content validity perspective). Secondly, to establish whether there were additional themes not adequately covered by the selected instruments (from a construct under-representation perspective). Greater emphasis was therefore placed on the quantitative phase of the exploratory sequential design in the current study. Given the lesser emphasis placed on the qualitative phase of the current study, the advantages associated with qualitative research were perhaps not fully realised. Hence it is therefore suggested that future studies try to implement a convergent parallel design (Creswell et al., 2011), which places equal emphasis on both the qualitative and quantitative strands, with the results of both being integrated during the overall interpretation of the results (Creswell et al., 2011).

5.8.4 The psychological capital measure.

The majority of instruments utilised in the current study had acceptable psychometric properties, with the exception of the psychological capital instrument (PCQ). More specifically, less than satisfactory reliability coefficients were observed for resilience (α= .60) and optimism (α= .48) in phase 3 of the current study. Three of the items associated with these two dimensions are negatively worded. It is likely that these items may be difficult to interpret.

The results reported in Phase 3 of the current study are similar to the results of a review conducted by Dawkins, Martin, Scott and Sanderson (2013). These researchers found that the internal reliability for both the optimism and resilience dimensions tend to be consistently lower when compared to the reliabilities for self-efficacy and hope. Dawkins et al. (2013) suggest that one possible reason for this may be the inclusion of reverse-scored items in the optimism and resilience sub-scales, since reverse scored items can reduce scale reliability. Gooty, Gavin, Johnson, Frazier and Snow (2009) found that if the reverse scored items are dropped, the Cronbach alpha's associated with optimism and resilience increased. Similarly confirmatory factor analysis findings have indicated that the removal of these items increased factor loadings and improved model fit in three separate studies (Chen & Lim, 2012; Gooty et al., 2009; Rego, Marques, Leal, Sousa, & Cunha, 2010).

According to Dawkins et al. (2013), this raises the question (particularly in relation to the optimism scale), as to whether a measure with reverse-scored items is assessing a single dimension with bi-polar opposites (e.g., optimism and pessimism) or two distinct, but related constructs. To facilitate answering this question, Dawkins et al. (2013) propose six directives for advancing PsyCap research towards strengthening the conceptualisation and measurement of PsyCap. Of particular relevance to the current study, two suggestions are highlighted:

1. The on-going conceptual development of PsyCap is required - any future possible expansion should follow refinement of the construct in its current state, and be conducted carefully and rigorously with a strong relevant theoretical under-pinning.

2. Further research should be focussed on improving the PsyCap construct validity profile, including alternate factor structures to reflect the conceptualisation of each PsyCap dimension.

The current study is therefore in agreement with the above recommendations that the measure for Psychological Capital (Psychological Capital Questionnaire) (PCQ) (Luthans et al., 2007), should be subjected to refinement in order to increase its applicability to South African work settings. Specifically, the wording of the three reverse-scored items (two items from the optimism sub-scale, and one item from the resilience sub-scale) should be reconsidered.

5.8.5 Suggestions for elaborating the current conceptual model

It is suggested that future researchers may consider elaborating the current conceptual model with career-relevant constructs such as a protean (self-directed) career orientation (Hall, 2002), in which the individual employee should play a more active role in career development initiatives. In a similar vein, it is proposed that career constructs related to the protean career, such as the intelligent career (DeFillipi & Arthur, 1994), which emphasise self-knowledge or self-awareness, and the "post-corporate career" (Peiperl & Baruch, 1997), which underscore vision and self-identity be further explored. Moreover, future researchers may wish to consider including career supporting strategies (Clark, 2007) such as mentoring (Eby et al., 2003) and networking (Arthur et al., 1995) which accentuate the role of self-directed behaviours. The above-mentioned suggestions are aimed at boosting understanding, enhancing theory-building, as well as predicting and facilitating the experience of subjective career success.

The previous sections dealt with limitations of the current study, as well as recommendations aimed at improving future research. The following section will deal with the practical interventions aimed at facilitating the career success of employees.

5.9 Practical Interventions aimed at Promoting Career Success

Both individuals and the organisations have to adopt a new approach to managing careers in order to meet future demands. According to Garavan, Morley, Gunnigle and Collins (2001), individuals will have to accept responsibility for managing their careers and employability, while for organisations, the critical issue will be "how to promote employability and balance individual and organisational needs" (Baruch, 2006, p. 135). Clarke (2007) claims that organisations need to adapt to how they contribute to an employee's perceptions of career success due to the changing nature of the employment relationship (e.g. life-long employment can no longer be guaranteed). In a similar vein, Van Buren (2003) advocates that, despite the shift in responsibility for careers, organisations can leverage their ethical responsibility and enhance their image by helping employees to remain employable in the labour market.

The current researcher supports the arguments of the above two authors, and believes it is imperative that organisations are adequately informed and educated about the critical importance of their role to create the necessary optimal conditions to psychologically empower employees to adopt the widely accepted trend of self-directed behaviour and taking personal responsibility for managing their careers. Such optimal conditions that should be facilitated by the organisation include the provision of supportive leadership related to a concern for the welfare of followers, and facilitating a desirable climate for relationships between leaders and followers (James & James, 1989). A climate of supportive leadership is one in which followers perceive that leaders are highly supportive of them and encourages their development and empowerment (Schyns, van Veldhoven, & Wood, 2009). Moreover, research suggests that when employees perceive the availability of organisational resources (i.e., training, autonomy and technology) which assist in the removal of obstacles at work, they feel more engaged in work. This in turn has a very positive impact on climate perceptions (Salanova et al., 2005). Thus, it is plausible that if followers perceive encouragement and organisational support in the form of job resources from their leaders, that this would contribute towards them experiencing a supportive organisational climate, ultimately helping them to achieve success in their careers.

In the following section, the importance of the organisation's role in providing sustainable career development processes is discussed.

5.9.1 Sustainable career development processes.

Iles (1997) suggests that organisations can provide sustainable career development processes which will help employees to manage their careers. Rothwell and Arnold (2007) maintain that these processes should incorporate activities designed to assist employees to self-assess their current skills, identify work interests and determine their career values. Moreover, organisations can offer support for individual career planning, through formal strategies such as performance management or more informal support, such as mentoring, coaching and networking (Rock & Garavan, 2006).

Evidence exists that organisations who offer career development, including opportunities for training, achieve higher levels of employee commitment, job satisfaction (Barnett & Bradley, 2007), and job performance (Sturges, Conway, Guest, & Liefhooghe, 2005). For example, in a study of career management during an organisational change, Lips-Wiersma and Hall (2007) found that when the organisation withdrew support for careers, employees reacted negatively to the planned change. Specifically, when support in the form of training and development opportunities was re-introduced, employees responded positively by accepting the changes and adopting a more proactive approach to career planning and alignment with the organisations' objectives. The latter authors maintain that "organisational investment into developing capacity and employability makes the individual feel valued and produces a higher level of motivation and commitment" (Lips-Wiersma & Hall, 2007, p. 788). Paradise (2008) argues that although organisations put in an enormous amount of effort, and incur great expense in supporting and promoting employee development, there has been an insignificant amount of research on the long-term effects of employee development variables on the career success of employees.

Lips-Wiersma and Hall (2007, p. 773) claim that a convergent approach shows that individual career-development and organisational career management do not develop independently of each other. In support of the view of the afore-mentioned authors,

Guest, Conway and Davey (2002) add that those individuals who manage their own careers also receive more career management help from their employer. Dabos and Rousseau (2004) maintain that the extent to which employees and employers share beliefs, regarding the exchange of career development for commitment in psychological contracts, is also found to impact career advancement. Van der Sluis and Poell (2003) contend that ideally both the organisation (in providing learning opportunities) and the individual (in seeking learning opportunities) collaborate to maximise positive outcomes for both parties.

Given the evolving nature of careers, Clarke (2007, p. 273) suggests that a more pluralistic approach should be adopted which encourages lateral career moves, special assignments and project teams, versus traditional training and development approaches linked to hierarchical models. This author maintains that this approach has the potential to increase internal flexibility, improve organisational responses to change, reduce recruitment costs and provide a competitive advantage. Clark (2007) suggests that the best way to achieve balance is for organisations to provide a development framework that guides and supports individuals towards career self-management.

On the basis of the theoretical model in the following section, various organisational career supporting strategies and organisational interventions are suggested. In order to counter-balance the organisational interventions, a number of individual interventions will be suggested immediately following this section.

5.9.2 Organisational interventions.

In the following section specific organisational career-supporting strategies are suggested.

5.9.2.1 Career supporting strategies.

Clarke (2007, p. 273) suggests specific career-supporting strategies that organisations could adopt by facilitating the employability of employees in relation to the three basic dimensions of career motivation, namely career identity, career insight, and career resilience (London, 1983). Career identity refers to the level to which career is

central to an individual's self-identity. It includes both work involvement (e.g. professional orientation, commitment to the job and organisation) and the desire for upward mobility. Career insight alludes to the extent to which individuals have a realistic perception of themselves in the organisation and are able to relate those perceptions to the organisation. Career resilience is the individual's capacity to deal with career disruption in environments which present uncertainty.

- In terms of career identity, organisations can clarify the requirements for vertical progression, so that individuals with high levels on this dimension will have the required knowledge to develop career plans. According to London (1993), organisations can also provide support for career advancement by influencing employees' performance goals, providing feedback and supplying access to mentors, and offering training and development to improve employability.

- Regarding career insight, Hind (2005) suggests that organisations can provide employees with regular feedback and assist them to better evaluate themselves more realistically, to determine their employability. Feedback helps individuals to develop an awareness of employer expectations, to assess their current performance level, and then identifies areas for improvement (Kavanagh, 1997). Feedback clarifies the psychological contract and keeps individuals up-to-date with where the organisation is heading (Rousseau, 2004). In addition, employers can provide assistance to employees in helping them to identify and understand their values, career goals and intrinsic motivation which are important elements in the career self-management process (Quigley & Tymon, 2006).

- Clarke (2007) suggests that organisations could develop a climate conducive to developing career resilience by providing opportunities to achieve while encouraging and supporting risk taking. Quigley et al. (2006) suggest that organisations can reinforce excellent performance through feedback and rewards, but also emphasise that failure is an acceptable part of learning. A study by Chiaburu, Baker and Pitariu (2006) found that career resilience was a

crucial factor in determining the extent to which pro-active individuals engage in self-management practices. Therefore, if employers support higher levels of career resilience, this may positively contribute to the transfer of responsibility for careers to the individual employee (Clark, 2007).

In the following section, the development of a supportive feedback learning-oriented culture that can be provided by organisations is suggested.

5.9.2.2 Development of a supportive feedback learning-oriented culture.

As alluded to in the previous section, feedback is an essential component of career development. London and Smither (as cited in Feldman, 2002, p. 327) define a feedback organisational culture in terms of "the organization's support for feedback including providing non-threatening and behaviourally oriented feedback, coaching to help interpret and use feedback to set performance goals, and rewards for performance improvement". These authors propose three types of organisational interventions that can contribute towards developing a supportive feedback culture:

1. Introduce processes that improve the quality of feedback, for example, the training of raters and clear performance standards,
2. Implement policies which clearly communicate the significance of feedback and performance ratings, and
3. The involvement of senior management in the process; and provide assistance in using feedback, including coaching and making courses available related to the competencies and performance areas which are assessed by the feedback.

Feldman (2002) maintains that a feedback, learning-oriented culture and the consequent support for career development is driven by the changing nature of organisations. This author argues that both internal and external circumstances impacts the importance of human resources to the organisation, and the level to which organisations are prepared to support employees to learn and develop. Moreover, individual employees also need to be mindful and responsible for their role as self-developers.

In similar vein, Senge (1990) maintains that the establishment of a learning organisation promotes continuous learning in an organisation, and increases organisational capacity through the learning process. According to Song (2008), the learning organisation has a culture that enhances organisational abilities by way of effective management and the application of created knowledge. Senge (1990) adds that people continuously discover how they create and change their reality in a learning organisation. Moreover, employees who function in an organisational climate in which they receive cooperation and direction, perceived to be more supportive of their contributions, will also report higher levels of trust in their organisation (Hughes, Avey, & Norman, 2008).

In the following section, the suggestion of providing coaching interventions by organisations is discussed.

5.9.2.3 Coaching interventions.

Organisational interventions may include the use of coaches to assist employees with a specific coaching agenda, such as understanding business problems, achieving performance objectives, determining priorities, establishing development plans, and for career development purposes. Generally accepted definitions of coaching are described by well-renowned authors below:

- Coaching is unlocking a person's potential to maximise their own performance. It is helping them to learn rather than teaching them - a facilitation approach (Whitmore, 1992).
- Coaching is the art of facilitating the performance, learning and development of another – a facilitation approach (Downey, 1999).
- Coaching is directly concerned with the immediate improvement of performance and development of skills by a form of tutoring or instruction – an instructional approach (Parsloe, 1995).

Moreover, Hall, Otazo and Hollenbeck (1999) maintain that coaches may even advise coachees on more intricate issues, such as improving personal relationships between ones' colleagues or boss, or improving one's personal style which may potentially

impact their career development. The latter authors suggest that the premise of coaching is that it boosts self-knowledge and assists coachees to become aware of their behaviour, including how to appropriately shift their behaviour to the demands of various organisational situations.

In the following section, various web-based career resource interventions that could be provided by organisations are proposed.

5.9.2.4 Web-based career resources.

London (as cited in Feldman, 2002) suggests that organisations can implement web-based career resources which provide support for self-managed career exploration such as the following:

- Career planning forms and guidelines for having career discussions with supervisors.
- Self-assessments for career development purposes.
- Personal development module allowing individuals to elicit feedback and learn from multi-source feedback surveys.
- Informal learning module to help employees understand learnings form daily work experiences.
- Modules which focus on methods for networking, work-life balance, and dealing with organisational changes as such as mergers and restructuring.
- Web pages explaining the value of coaching.
- Personal inventory tools encouraging self-discovery of leadership styles, motivation, and critical competencies required for specific job roles, and
- On-line career counselling.

According to Van den Tooren and De Jonge (2010), it is not only a matter of organisations offering effective job resources to employees, but also a matter of directing and supporting employees in a manner in which they will be able to activate these resources at the desired point in time. Rousseau and Aubé (2010) add that being aware of the detrimental impact of inadequate job resources, managers can take the necessary action geared towards increasing resources required by employees to accomplish their work objectives.

In the following section, transformational leadership development interventions which could be considered for implementation by organisations are presented.

5.9.2.5 Transformational leadership interventions.

It is recommended that organisations consider implementing leadership development programmes for their managers with the view that these investments will deliver successful results. The Full Range Leadership Development programme (FRLD) (Avolio & Bass, 1991) has been extensively used to develop and train transformational leadership.

The following section briefly elucidates aspects of the FRLD programme design.

5.9.2.5.1 FRLD Programme Design.

Conger (1992) proposed that managerial leadership development can be divided into four categories which places emphasis on key critical leadership competencies which can be taught, namely:

- Leadership training through personal growth.
- Leadership development through conceptual understanding.
- Leadership development through feedback, and
- Leadership development through skill building.

The FRLD programme typically focuses on these categories, including a wide range of adult-learning interventions. Various interventions linked to the FRLD are set out below:

- Use of implicit leadership theories, by linking personal learning to acquired learning.
- Application of learning to real-life work experiences.
- Formal or informal coaching by a trusted colleague.
- Reflection on the successes and failure of implementing a leadership development plan.

- Self-assessment for enabling self-perception of participant leadership experiences.
- Self-planning to develop a leadership development plan that can be applied in the work environment.
- Work from an all encompassing model down to a more granular level of specific action.

McCauley, Moxley and Van Velsor (1998) and Conger and Benjamin (1999) have concluded that full range development experiences include mentoring, job assignment, feedback systems, on-the-job experiences, leader-follower relationships, and follower training.

Further, Alimo-Metcalfe and Lawler (2001) suggest that a strong action-learning approach should be included in FRLD interventions. Action-learning is underpinned by the notion that people learn best when they are confronted with their limitations (Marsick & O'Niel, 1999). Moreover, Barling et al. (1996) conducted a study to assess the effects of transformational leadership training and extended previous correlational results, and in conjunction with Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) and Howell and Frost (1989), provided experimental evidence that transformational leadership can result in changes in subordinate's perceptions of manager's leadership behaviours, subordinate's own commitment to the organisation, and certain aspects of financial performance.

The following section highlights various psychological capital interventions which organisations could consider implementing as a means of enhancing the career success of individual employees.

5.9.2.6 Psychological capital interventions.

Luthans et al. (2006) developed a psychological capital intervention (PCI) which elucidates specific suggestions to enhance hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience.

5.9.2.6.1 Hope.

Luthans et al. (2006) relied heavily on the work of Snyder (2000) in suggesting these interventions. A three-pronged strategy emphasising a goal-oriented perspective for the development of hope is suggested. This strategy includes goal design, pathway generation, and overcoming obstacles. Once goals have been determined, multiple pathways to achieve the goals are established, including alternative pathways to be explored when goal blockages are encountered (Luthans et al., 2006).

In applying the suggested intervention to the notion of career success, it is suggested that organisations assist employees to set themselves a career goal and establish more than one career strategy (i.e. pathway) in order to pursue their goal. It is expected that the achievement of the goal will lead to the experience of subjective career success. It is advisable that when employees experience blockages in the achievement of their goal, they should have alternative strategies (i.e. pathways) to allow them to still pursue that goal and not abandon it. Employees are therefore likely to experience more hope when having more than one career enhancing strategy (CES) at their disposal.

5.9.2.6.2 Self-efficacy.

Luthans et al. (2006, p. 390) emphasised the theoretical framework of Bandura (1989) for the development of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to an individual's perception that he or she is competent. The PCI draws on Bandura's taxonomy of sources of efficacy which includes, "task mastery, modelling or vicarious learning… and social persuasion and positive feedback" (Luthans et al., 2006, p. 390).

To enhance an employee's self-efficacy as it relates to subjective career success, the following is suggested. When employees perform their duties competently, this will lead to perceptions of self-efficacy, which will contribute to their perceptions of subjective career success. Employees are encouraged to identify mentors to assist them in pursuit of their career objectives. Employees can model the behaviour practiced by mentors to become more competent in their execution of their job responsibilities. In addition, when mentors provide positive feedback to employees regarding their progress on their job performance, this may enhance their perceptions

of confidence. It is clear that mentors play an important role in contributing to employees' perceptions of self-efficacy and subjective career success.

5.9.2.6.3 Optimism.

For the development of optimism, Luthans et al. (2006) seem to have placed emphasis on the work done by Carver and Scheier (2002) and Schneider (2001). According to Carver and Scheier (2002), optimism and pessimism influence individuals' subjective experiences of how they deal with problems. Carver and Scheir (2002) and Schneider (2001) suggested three ways of developing realistic optimism in the workplace: (1) leniency for the past, (2) appreciation of the present, and (3) opportunity seeking for the future. It is suggested that employees adopt a problem-centred coping approach in re-positioning problems in the best possible perspective (Carver & Scheier, 2002). By adopting this approach, employees can first assess their resources and set realistic goals for themselves. Employees can then identify resources under their control (e.g. nominating themselves for work assignments, the use of mentors, and accessing networks), and then use them to solve the current problems related to their perceptions of subjective career success.

5.9.2.6.4 Resilience.

Luthans et al. (2006, p. 390) focussed on the three main components of resilience developed by Masten (2001), (i.e., asset factors, risk factors, and influence processes), for the development of resilience. Assets are resources that can be used in order to deal with setbacks. Risk factors reduce an individual's ability to be resilient. Influence processes refer to the interpretation of setbacks (Masten, 2001). Asset-focussed strategies include knowledge, skills and abilities, networks, as well as other psychological capital components (self-efficacy, hope, and optimism) (Luthans et al., 2007). Risk-focussed strategies include the management of risk factors rather than avoiding them. In addition, process-focussed strategies refer to the continuous process of identifying, selecting, developing, implementing and maintaining a suitable mix of resources in managing risks. It is suggested that if employees wish to bolster their perceptions of subjective career success, they can follow process-focussed strategies. This implies that employees should continuously identify appropriate resources (e.g. self-efficacy, optimism, hope, mentors, networks, and self-

nomination). Depending on the situation, a mixture of these resources should be chosen and developed (if such a resource is not currently included in the employees' repertoire of resources). Finally this optimal mix of resources should be implemented in order to increase perceptions of subjective career success.

In order to counter-balance the organisational interventions, a number of employee self-directed interventions are presented in the following section.

5.9.3 Employee self-directed interventions.

Career enhancing strategies are a way for employees to become empowered to take responsibility for their own careers and development (Feij, Whitely, Pierró, & Taris, 1995). Given the changing nature of careers, the term "protean", as discussed in Chapter 1 and 2, emphasises the individual perspective (Sullivan, 1999) and, more specifically, it centres on "achieving subjective career success through self-directed vocational behavior" (Briscoe et al., 2006). Within the context of the protean career, individuals, rather than their employing organisations, become the architects of their own career, development and vocational destiny (Enache, Sallan, Simo, & Fernandez, 2011).

Although there are several career enhancing strategies (Greenhaus, et al. 2010, p. 132), Nabi (2003) suggested three career enhancing strategies which in particular emphasise a relational component, namely (1) employee self-nomination, (2) utilising support from a mentor, and (3) networking. The relational component is important so that employees can be noticed by their supervisors and be taken into consideration for future career opportunities. This is only possible if employees nominate themselves for career enhancing experiences. If employees do so, they are likely to come into contact with individuals, other than their supervisor, that could help them build their careers. Hence, they will be expanding their networks. These three strategies are likely to improve perceptions of subjective career success.

5.9.3.1 Employee self-nomination.

This reflects the communication of abilities, accomplishments and career goals to superiors (Greenhaus et al., 2000; Gould & Penley, 1984). According to Aryee and

Debrah (1993), this type of proactive behaviour is crucially important to subjective career success, given that it is likely to help individuals enhance their careers by obtaining desired work assignments from their superiors and obtaining personal career goals.

Employees may benefit from personally "putting up their hands" and making their supervisors aware of their career aspirations. This will enable the supervisor to be mindful of these aspirations when considering employees for various assignments. Once an employee has been placed on assignment, this may be used as a useful learning opportunity to improve job-related skills necessary for positive perceptions of subjective career success. Employee self-nomination, wherein employees proactively take the initiative to communicate their career goals to their supervisor, may be an example of self-management behaviours that are important for achieving career success. This self-directed approach is related to the protean career concept (De Vos & Soens, 2008). According to Kanter (1977) employees who are more optimistic about their future careers seem to be more proactive in implementing their career enhancing strategies. This allows employees to feel much more in control of managing their careers and successfully achieving their career goals.

5.9.3.2 Utilising support from a mentor.

Mentoring has been claimed to be an effective career management and development strategy (Baugh & Sullivan, 2005). Various meta-analyses have shown (Allen et al., 2004; Kammeyer-Mueler & Judge, 2008; Ng et al., 2005; Underhill, 2006) mentoring to be a significant predictor of an individual's career satisfaction, however it is a modest predictor of hierarchical career progression. The support from a mentor has been suggested as providing the employee with feedback, guidance and deep emotional support. The exhibited behaviours seem to promote feelings of career success in the employee (Kram, 1988; Peluchette, 1993). A trusted mentor can act as a valuable source of learning and development for the employee (Eby et al., 2003). The mentor can provide job and career-related career advice and support. When employees use the learnings gained from mentors and apply these learnings to their own careers, this may lead to positive perceptions of career success. In the mentoring literature, it would be seen as a career-enhancing strategy to actually seek mentoring.

5.9.3.3 Networking.

Networking reflects a strategy of "knowing whom" that can enhance one's career (Arthur et al., 1995). Other authors (Peluchette, 1993) claim that psychosocial support promotes both feelings of career success and a sense of support. These two benefits seem to be gained from networks. According to Higgins and Kram (2001) it can be helpful in staying abreast of new developments and approaches within and outside the organisation. This results in the creation of career communities which create opportunities for career support and personal development (Parker & Arthur, 2000). An additional benefit of networks may be to gain access to job opportunities within or outside the organisation (Eby et al., 2003). According to Greenhaus et al. (1990) networking should promote subjective career success because it incorporates the identification and acquisition of support, information and advice from relevant people. Forret and Dougherty (2004) found that increasing internal visibility as part of a repertoire of network-building behaviours was positively associated with the number of promotions, the amount of total compensation, and perceived career success.

In addition, Clarke (2007) suggests the following practical self-directed behaviours to assist employees in the context of new careers:

- Develop the capacity to anticipate and predict skills that will be required in the future.
- Adopt attitudes and behaviours focussed on preparing for the future.
- Adopt a proactive approach to upgrading and maintaining skills.
- Be willing to engage in life-long learning.
- Adopt attitudes and behaviours focussed on preparing for the future.
- Be willing and display the capacity to be flexible in terms of tasks, jobs and roles.

Moreover, (Colquitt, LePine, & Noe, 2000) suggests individual-level career exploration, which includes self-assessment of strengths and weaknesses, career values, interests, and getting input from co-workers, supervisors, and family members.

5.10 Summary

This final chapter demonstrated that the constructs chosen for the current study revealed acceptable psychometric properties and could be confidently utilised to interpret the results of the study.

The optimal model suggests both less complex and more complex paths consisting of the following sequence:

- Transformational leadership through job resources to impact subject career success.
- Transformational leadership through job resources; through supportive organisational climate to impact subjective career success.
- Transformational leadership through job resources; through psychological empowerment; through psychological capital to impact subjective career success.
- Transformational leadership through job resources; through supportive organisational climate; through psychological empowerment; through psychological capital to impact subjective career success.

On the basis of the multiple regression results, the three most important predictors of subjective career success are job resources, psychological capital and a supportive organisational climate. The chapter concluded with recommendations for future research, as well as practical interventions to enhance perceptions of subjective career success.

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